THE
SOCIAL STUDIES
CURRICULUM

1936—FOURTEENTH YEARBOOK
DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

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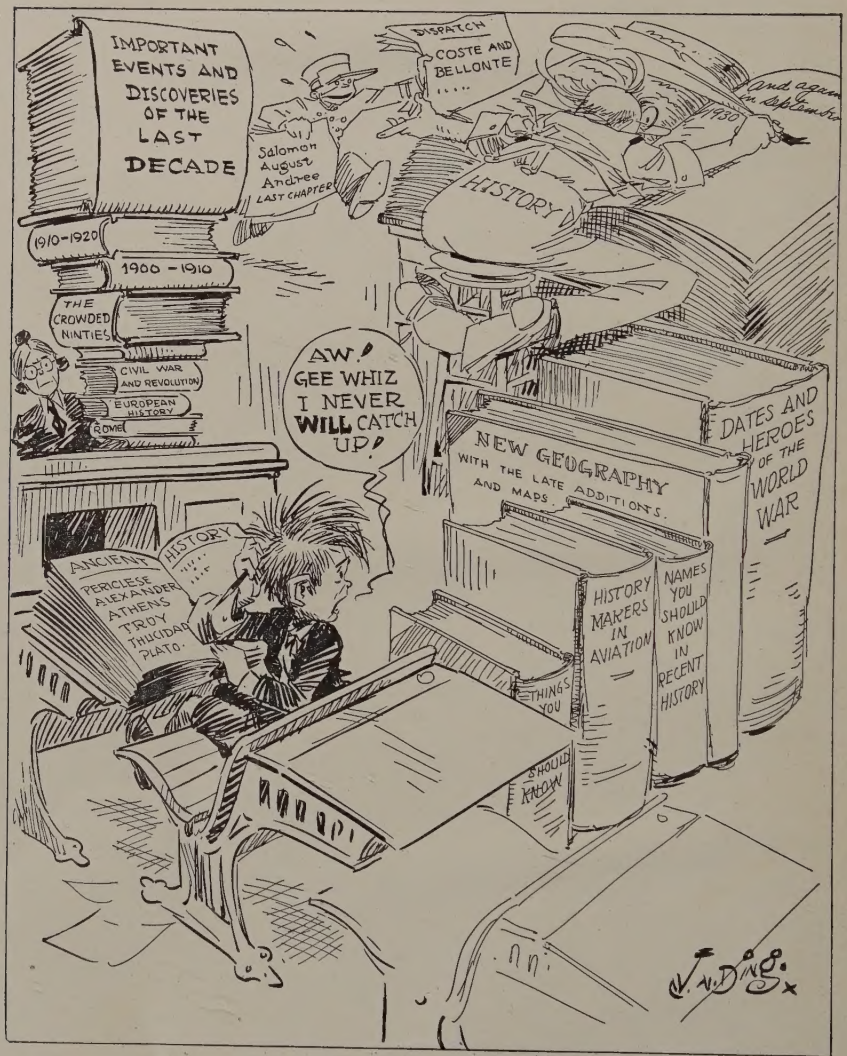

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The SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

FOURTEENTH YEARBOOK

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FOREWORD

THE NEED FOR A REEXAMINATION of the social studies curriculum has been a growing conviction in the minds of the members of the Department of Superintendence for several years. At the Washington convention in February 1932 this feeling crystallized in the form of the following resolution:

> We recommend that the Executive Committee appoint a committee which shall prepare and send to the active members of this Department at the earliest practicable moment suggestive changes for such adjustments in the social studies curricula in our junior and senior high schools as our present social and economic situation has made necessary and vital.

It is from the foregoing resolution that the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum received its original direction. However, the nature of the final report of the present Commission has been definitely influenced by the work of three earlier commissions.

The first of these major influences has been the publications of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends (1933). Its comprehensive report and monographs present, in vivid form, the nature of recent social changes in the United States. Superintendents of schools and teachers alike are finding these publications authoritative statements of social facts and phenomena.

In the second place an influence was exerted by the Department's able Commission on Education for New Social and Economic Relationships which prepared the 1935 Yearbook. Members of the Department, by a comparison of the two volumes, will find that the contents supplement each other in their general outlines. The 1935 Yearbook traces a number of recent social trends and suggests the contribution that education may be expected to make to American democracy. Upon this general base the present yearbook rears a superstructure of the purposes, principles, and practises to be incorporated into the social studies curriculum. The next step is for each superintendent to enlist teachers in developing a specific social studies curriculum adapted to the needs and the hopes of his local community. Without this final step, which no national commission would presume to dictate in this day and age, much of the effort expended by the Department will have been wasted.

The preparation of this 1936 Yearbook has been influenced, also, by the productions of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. The several volumes of that investigation have been widely distributed and are familiar to many superintendents of schools.

No attempt is made in the present volume to decide between the use of the two terms "social studies" and "social sciences" in the social instruc-

tion of elementary and secondary schools. Thruout the various chapters the two terms denote the same parts of the curriculum. In using either term the Commission refers to the courses or topics in history, civics, geography, economics, social problems, sociology, and similar subjects which are usually (see Chapter V) recognized as constituting the social studies curriculum. At the same time (see Chapter I) the Commission recognizes that every worthwhile subject makes a contribution to the socialization of the individual and that the so-called subject lines are necessarily arbitrarily drawn. Those interested in the respective merits of various terms are referred to Tryon's *The Social Sciences as School Subjects,* Part XI of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association.

There will be a few persons who may feel that the present yearbook has not taken sufficient notice of the international aspects of the social studies curriculum. Some will look for a specific chapter which would tell them how to develop the world consciousness necessary for citizens in our democracy. It should be obvious, particularly from a reading of Part II, that many opportunities exist for properly introducing pupils to the problems of the economic and the cultural relationships among modern nations. A chapter on world affairs would have distorted the plan and the purposes of the present volume, while dismissing with inadequate treatment a topic which might well require an entire yearbook.

Acknowledgments

In a project of this sort many more persons deserve credit than these preliminary pages would indicate. Every member of the Commission has called upon associates in his institution or school system for assistance in the preparation of materials. The footnotes and bibliographies cited thruout the text indicate a debt to many who have already made significant contributions to the social studies curriculum. By drawing upon and adding to the available sources the Commission members prepared chapters which were critically reviewed at numerous meetings. The volume in its present form represents the viewpoint of the Commission as a whole.

As in the case of earlier yearbooks the Commission recognizes the helpful assistance of the Headquarters Staff in Washington, D.C. Sherwood D. Shankland, executive secretary of the Department of Superintendence, handled the business details and contributed from his experience with similar commissions. William G. Carr, director of research of the National Education Association, participated actively in all deliberations. Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research, served as secretary of the Commission, circulated questionnaires, prepared necessary outlines, and edited the volume for publication.

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UNDERLYING THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM and methods of instruction are certain principles which are the necessary characteristics of a democratic society and essential to the effective operation of American society in particular. These principles are set forth in the Constitution of the United States, state constitutions, great statutes, and the primary writings of the American tradition, and are clearly designed for application to a changing society. For the social studies curriculum the following are basic and imperative:

(1) *Government with the consent of the governed as contrasted with government by dictatorial force imposed by stratagem and violence. Government with the consent of the governed requires the establishment and preservation of impartial election machinery, purity of the ballot, freedom of candidacy, open presentation of issues, liberty of press and discussion, an educated electorate, and the right of the people to alter their fundamental laws by established processes as changed conditions call for alterations in the powers and forms of government.*

(2) *The use of government, economy, the natural endowment of the nation, and the technical arts for the promotion of the general welfare and for the creation and maintenance of the highest possible standard of life and well-being for all the people, as distinguished from the privileges of any class.*

(3) *The preservation of personal liberty—full religious liberty and freedom of press, speech, assembly, and petition—as opposed to capricious and irresponsible tyranny.*

(4) *The preservation of the rights of property lawfully acquired against arbitrary seizure and confiscation, and the application of the rule that property is to be taken only for public purposes and by due process in which burdens fall with the same weight on all persons similarly situated.*

(5) *The protection of private rights against arbitrary action, by the maintenance of fixed processes guaranteeing speedy and open hearings in courts of law, right of counsel, right of jury trial, and right of impartial judgment.*

(6) *The enforcement of law by duly constituted officials alone and the repudiation of all private persons and organizations that try to take upon themselves the functions of judges and executioners.*

(7) *The assumption of full individual responsibility in the discharge of private and public obligations.*

These principles form the basis of orientation for instruction in the social studies in the American public schools. The schools do not operate in a vacuum. They can discharge their obligations to the nation only by applying these principles in the choice of themes of instruction, the selection of materials, and the determination of classroom procedures. Only by the constant observation of such guides, or points of reference, can teachers of the social studies give vivid meaning to programs and methods and avoid losing themselves in a wilderness of arid and insignificant details.

A PREVIEW

SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS have listened in recent years to perplexing discussions of the problems of a changing society. These discussions have often been theoretical, technical, and highly controversial. Altho such oratorical and literary tilts are stimulating, there comes a time when the practical school worker must face the question: "Of what significance to education is dynamic social evidence and how can it be used in the classroom?" Since there is no single or final answer to the question, this yearbook presents a number of viewpoints and possible procedures. By combining these suggestions with local experience superintendents and their staffs will be able to plan for their pupils an increasing number of significant social activities. This preview states fourteen of the major practical questions upon which the yearbook attempts to throw some light and toward the solution of which it attempts to contribute.

Factors Conditioning the Social Studies

Among the major and minor factors conditioning the social studies, those of prime importance for the purposes of the present yearbook are as follows: (1) the nature of society, (2) the role of education and the school, and (3) the nature of the learner and the learning process.

How does the nature of society affect the social studies?—A program of social studies is never spun out of pure theory in a vacuum. Its content and form are conditioned, and in part determined, by the nature of the society in which it is formulated and by the nature of the social studies themselves. More specifically the major influences are:

(1) *The accuracy of social knowledge*—Terminology and concepts in the social studies are not as exact or as unchanging as the elements in physical science.

(2) *The type of society for which it is prepared*—The program will bear some relation to the society and the age in which it is framed.

(3) *Dynamics of social living*—American society is changing under the impacts of science, invention, enterprise, and thought.

(4) *Trends in American economy and culture*—Over long periods general trends become marked, e.g., the increasing mechanization of industry and agriculture.

(5) *The American heritage of ideas*—The social studies have to deal with the intellectual and cultural heritage found in the great documents of American history and the writings of statesmen, poets, philosophers, scientists, novelists, and essayists.

(6) *Conceptions of human values*—The program must include human strivings and aspirations for the true, the beautiful, and the good.

(7) *Growing social knowledge*—From year to year investigators, research workers, and trained observers are adding to our knowledge of society and its processes, supplying descriptions ever more accurate and painstaking.

The above points are developed at some length in Chapter I, pages 19 to 24.

Of what significance to the social studies is the role of education and the school?—The nature and the purpose of education in any society are determined by the dominant forces within that group. Under a dictator the role of education is definitely prescribed and arbitrarily limited. In American democracy the functions of the school have developed experimentally. In the past the people, thru their chosen representatives, have determined how much education they wished to have and how the schools should be conducted. Since the primary need has been for the transmission of racial culture, the schools have directed their efforts largely to that end.

The shift of the dominant economic base of American life from agriculture to industry has precipitated social and cultural maladjustment. At once several pertinent questions require answers: Should public education continue to transmit the racial inheritance only, or should it also present students with a realistic picture of modern society? To what extent should teachers attempt to exert influence in deciding the more controversial issues upon the social frontier? To what extent should the school curriculum, particularly the social studies, be utilized to give the American people new conceptions of human values and social issues? Obviously if education is to assume these new responsibilities, the relative social and economic illiteracy of teachers must be eliminated. For a fuller treatment of the topic see Chapter II, pages 25 to 31.

Why are the social studies concerned with the nature of the learner and the learning process?—The investigations and theories of the various schools of psychology throw light on the problems of curriculum and methods in the social studies. For example, some kinds of learning are explained by the process of conditioning, others by trial and error, others by association forming, and still others by the apprehension of relations and insight. In addition, the concept of purpose, emphasized in Hormic psychology, and the understanding of emotional reactions, provided by the psychiatrist, have a bearing on attitudes and motivation. Besides this the psychology of social experience shows more specifically how the child's socialization is an outgrowth of a series of acts of learning which are set in motion by the nature of the society in which he lives. The child's learning is limited by his inherent human nature, his intelligence, and his stage of development at any particular age, but within the limits set by these factors the content and direction of the learning which constitutes his socialization will be determined by the attitudes, habits, and ideas of his social group. For a more complete picture of these specific points see Chapter III, pages 32 to 48.

The Social Studies Curriculum

With regard to the content of the social studies curriculum the present yearbook deals with the following eight topics: (1) the nature and the role of the social studies; (2) the status and trends of the social studies curriculum; (3) the social studies program as a whole; (4) the selection of content; (5) grade placement; (6) types of internal organization; (7) the construction of units; and (8) the utilization of community resources.

What are the nature and the role of the social studies?—The social studies may be considered narrowly on the routine level, or broadly and comprehensively on higher levels reaching upward to an all-embracing philosophy. A social studies program for the schools is a compromise between the comprehensiveness and specialism of scholarship and the requirements and necessities of schoolroom organization and presentation. A recognition of the two sides of the operation is essential to attainment of the highest possible level of combined theory and practise.

The social studies are concerned with human relations primarily, and other things incidentally. The social studies involve thought as well as knowledge about human relations, and thought enters into the selection and organization of social facts for schoolroom presentation. It is the human relations aspect of the social studies which distinguishes them from other school subjects; but the distinction is not absolute.

The several branches of learning included in a social studies program are concerned with particular types or aspects of human relations—economic, political, cultural; and history, as all-embracing, seeks to find the unity of social relations in time development.

The following purposes enter into the selection and organization of materials for classroom instruction:

(1) To give pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and world in which they are to live and make their way.

(2) To prepare pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, and nations.

(3) To develop character—to give pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward good, and a will and desire to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.

(4) To train pupils in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society—acquisition of knowledge, skill in use of knowledge, skill in selecting and verifying facts, skill in exploring and stating social issues, and skill in discussing and weighing them.

A generous freedom of study and teaching is necessary to acquiring and presenting a realistic picture of society, its forms and tensions. A way must be steered between the extremes of dogmatic indoctrination and the

indifference of "absolute neutrality." Preparation for teaching the social studies calls for wide knowledge of the facts of social relations, acquaintance with the literature of social aspiration, and the attainment of the judicial spirit. For further discussion consult Chapter IV, pages 51 to 62.

What have been the recent trends in the social studies curriculum?—A sampling study of the topics, courses, grade placement, and time allotments in the social studies reveals certain significant facts. Apparently six-year elementary schools are doing more toward enrichment thru additions to the social studies curriculum than are the eight-year schools. The eight-grade school tends to crowd subjects into the seventh and eighth grades which under the junior high-school plan are more evenly distributed over three grades. This statement is particularly true for such subjects as state history, current events, community civics, citizenship, and social problems. At the senior high-school level three-year schools appear to crowd the final year with more subjects than do the four-year and six-year schools. At all school levels there has been a definite trend toward enriching the social studies program by increasing the attention given to civics, social problems, and other non-historical subjects. For further details see Chapter V, pages 63 to 90.

What should be the nature of the social studies program as a whole?—At least twice in the development or revision of a course in social studies it is essential to view the program as a whole. When the work is first projected, a general pattern must be set up for the course in its entirety. Later, when the work is nearly completed, there is need to survey the entire program to make sure that the major purposes have been served, that adopted standards have been met, and that the course is consistent with itself.

Among the principles which may be used by the superintendent and his staff in evaluating the entire program are the following: (1) comprehensiveness and balance, (2) vertical articulation, (3) horizontal articulation, (4) reality of learning situations, (5) self-integrated learning, (6) adaptation to maturity of learner, (7) adaptation to community characteristics, (8) adaptation to individual differences, (9) flexibility, (10) scientific evidence of validity, and (11) contribution to general objectives.

For a full discussion of these principles and examples of the topics which might be included in the entire program see Chapter VI, pages 91 to 140.

What principles and procedures should guide the selection of content for the social studies?—Not so many years ago the general content of the social studies curriculum was blocked out by national or regional committees. The specific content was filled in by textbook writers. Today teachers and administrators are making curriculums which are more flexible and better

adapted to local needs. To avoid the obvious dangers in the present plan three major criteria should be kept in mind:

(1) *Accuracy*—Teachers are bound by the tenets of a scholarship to which we owe a large measure of allegiance to see that no known untruth be taught as true.

(2) *Usefulness*—The pupil has a right to expect that which is taught him in the schools to be applicable to and helpful in meeting the situations of normal living.

(3) *Learnability*—An accurate and useful curriculum may be ineffective if provision has not been made for the limitations and differences in the abilities of pupils.

Numerous studies have been made to determine whether content is true, useful, and learnable. In respect to the mechanical methods one is forced to conclude that there is no substitute in curriculum-making for informed and sensitive intelligence on the part of those who make the course of study. A discussion of the three criteria and of the research in the field will be found in Chapter VII, pages 141 to 164.

What can and should be done about grade placement in the social studies?—The question of grade placement has two major aspects: first, sequence or planning the order of experiences so that the learning is most efficient; second, adaptation to maturity or the allocation of experiences to the level where the experiences will be most meaningful and educative.

There are three ways in which the problem of grade placement may be approached: (1) present practise; (2) opinion of individuals or groups; and (3) evidence of ease of learning, child interest, and utility to pupils. Thru these methods the general placement of materials may be tentatively decided but upon each teacher rests the decision as to the appropriateness of social studies experiences in terms of a given time, place, and class.

Present practise and expert opinion have been in the past and are today the major influences in grade placement. Experimental testing of materials under actual classroom conditions has made some progress. Combined with the systematic collection of objective data, classroom tryouts and expert opinion may be expected to become even more effective. For a review of investigations of grade placement and a discussion of the problems involved, see Chapter VIII, pages 165 to 177.

What should be the internal organization of the social studies?—The organization of materials in the social studies curriculum is a perplexing problem because of the complex nature of human relationship and the necessity of selecting definite aspects of the subject for study and analysis at a particular time.

In determining the general plan of organization the administrator must be guided by certain practical considerations, such as the attitude and preparation of the teaching staff, available textbooks, and supplementary references. He must also consider the general plan of organization of the

schools; the extent to which traditional subjects should be preserved or ignored within the social studies field and in the curriculum in general; and the adaptation of materials to the maturity, ability, and experience of the pupils.

The major goal in organization is to provide those relationships in the materials of instruction which will most effectively facilitate learning. Obviously in many cases these relationships cannot be determined in advance so that any plan of organization in a course of study must be somewhat arbitrary and may be quite artificial. However, if materials are organized with certain generally recognized principles in mind (see Chapters VI, VII, and VIII) there is more likelihood that the learning environment in the classroom will function on a high level. Some of the plans in use today for organizing social studies do not measure up to expert opinion or the findings of research. While a skilled teacher may overcome the handicap of poor arrangement of content, he is placed under necessarily difficult circumstances. For examples of various ways of organizing the content consult Chapter IX, pages 178 to 232.

How should curriculum materials be prepared?—Experience in the past few years has been that the preparation of curriculum materials by teacher committees increases the educational understanding of those participating in the work, and hence improves the quality of instruction in the classroom. This statement is particularly true when certain weaknesses of the procedure, such as the lack of adequate scholarship on the part of committee members, are adequately provided for.

One of the most promising plans is the organization of materials into areas which include a problem or a series of problems of present social significance. Altho called by various names the term "unit" is probably most widely used. One form of the unit in the social studies course of study may include the following: (1) overview; (2) objectives; (3) suggested activities or approaches; (4) problems to be solved by the pupils; (5) suggestions for evaluating the work of pupils; and (6) bibliographies. These points are developed at some length in Chapter X, pages 233 to 245.

What use should be made of community resources?—There have always been teachers who preferred textbook superficiality with its ease of management to first-hand experience with its obvious instructional difficulties. But also there has always been a pageant of master teachers who have sought to keep education close to concrete and real things. One of the hopeful signs in connection with presentday instruction in the social studies is the increasing tendency to push out the four walls of the classroom until they encompass all aspects of community life. Pupils do not merely read about group living—they observe many social processes at first-hand,

they participate in activities within the limits of their maturity, and they contribute in important ways to the community's advancement. A number of practical illustrations of how to utilize community resources will be found in Chapter XI, pages 246 to 278.

Teaching, Evaluating, and Revising Social Studies Programs

In connection with instruction and appraisal in the social studies program the present volume deals with three topics: (1) the teacher and classroom technics; (2) evaluating the outcomes of the social studies program; and (3) reconstructing the social studies program in the local community.

What technics and methods should teachers use in a modern social studies program?—The teacher today has the very difficult task of teaching pupils to think for themselves in a rapidly changing world. For this reason the role of the classroom teacher has never been more important.

In the social studies the supreme need is for well-trained teachers whose work is freed from petty criticism and whose motives are not misinterpreted. It is easy for laymen to be misinformed about social studies instruction particularly with regard to the handling of controversial issues. The situation calls for tolerance and fair play on both sides. Perhaps a code of "fair practise" drawn up by parents, teachers, and pupils would promote effective conditions of learning.

The wise teacher of the social studies will not throw aside old methods because they are old, nor will he embrace new methods merely because they are new. Any method—whether problem, or project, or library-research—will be used where it will be most effective. One who would be a master teacher in this sense must have acquired the habits of orderly thinking, must have a knowledge of child nature, and must have developed an understanding of human relationships thru participation in community affairs. For a discussion of the nature and advantages of various methods consult Chapter XII, pages 281 to 311.

What evaluation should be made of the outcomes of the social studies program?—Continuous evaluation is essential to determine the degree of effectiveness of the social studies program and to obtain an intelligent basis for curriculum improvement. An adequate program of appraisal provides evidence of the degree to which all of the important purposes of the social studies are being realized. To this end teachers will increasingly use a variety of evaluation methods instead of limiting themselves to written examinations. A comprehensive plan of appraisal also involves cumulative studies of pupils beyond the years of formal schooling so that the relative permanency of these educational experiences may be determined. Specific

examples of the advantages and difficulties of various kinds of tests are given in Chapter XIII, pages 312 to 343.

How should provision be made for the continuous revision of the social studies curriculum?—A sound program of continuous curriculum revision must give some attention to the following basic questions: (1) What kind of world do we live in and what kind of world should we have? (2) What philosophy of life and education can and should we build? (3) What guiding principles shall we set up for constructing curriculum materials in consonance with our philosophy? (4) How can we actually construct materials most effectively? (5) How can these materials be given most revealing tryouts? (6) How can the work be continuously evaluated? The discussion in Chapter XIV is pointed to other chapters of the yearbook in which these questions are treated at some length.

In a program of continuous curriculum revision there are five reasonably distinct periods: (1) orientation of the committee, (2) production of instructional materials, (3) installation and tryout of curriculum materials, (4) evaluation of the effectiveness of materials, and (5) revision of materials as a result of tryout and evaluation. These points have been developed in Chapter XIV, pages 344 to 362.

PART ONE

FACTORS CONDITIONING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

CHAPTER I

THE NATURE OF SOCIETY

A COURSE IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES is never made at will out of pure theory in a vacuum. It is always prepared by some person or group of persons in a given time and place. Its content and form are conditioned, and in part determined, by the nature of the society in which it is formulated and by the nature of the social studies themselves. In other words, we cannot do exactly as we please in laying out a program in this field of knowledge and thought. We must cut the garment in some relation to the cloth, to employ a figure of speech. The more realistic the program is and the more effective it is in fitting pupils for life, the more attention we must give to the essential characteristics of the society in which the social studies are taught and to the broad features and concrete facts presented by the social studies when they are comprehensively considered. The task of creating a program is, therefore, not to be undertaken lightly "without fear and without research," if respect for the obligations involved is to be preserved.

Accuracy of Social Knowledge

Altho something is said about the nature of the social studies in Chapter IV, a word of caution must be entered here. These subjects are not branches of mathematics, physics, and chemistry. They are not as simple as the elements of the physical sciences; nor are they as exact. The terms which they employ are not always unequivocal, that is, open to only one interpretation. Hydrogen is hydrogen to every chemist—American, German, or Japanese—at least for practical purposes. On the other hand, the words government, industry, agriculture, community, and similar terms used in the social studies carry different connotations to observers in different times and places. They may be defined, it is true, with considerable exactness for purposes of inquiry, but they cover changing circumstances and are so loosely used in everyday life that it is difficult to maintain always and everywhere the rigor of definitions made for technical purposes.

Yet within the social studies are included bodies of knowledge which are fairly exact and accepted by a consensus of those competent to judge. For example, scholars acquainted with thousands of diplomatic documents and other records pertaining to the period previous to the World War *know* that the great powers of Europe were rapidly building up armaments and were cementing alliances in preparation for a conflict. They *know* that the German Government, whatever its intentions and methods, did not suddenly spring the war upon unprepared and wholly innocent Russia and Great Britain. This is a complicated fact accepted by con-

temporary scholarship in European history. It must condition instruction in recent European history, *if* teachers are to be loyal to truth, to the hard facts of their subject. And so on thru the whole range of the social studies. Does anyone without ulterior motives believe that teachers should teach falsehood? Unless we can agree that there must be a certain loyalty to facts in each case, then we might as well say that the sole business of the social studies is propaganda. If it is to be propaganda, then another question arises: In whose interest?

Types of Society

Other limitations stand in the way of those who plan courses in the social studies. The program will and must bear some relation to the society and the age in which it is framed. In the long history of mankind many types of human society have appeared. No inclusive and completely satisfactory classification of these types can be made, but certain generalities are fairly well established. A tentative list may be ventured here:

(1) *Primitive society*—without property in cattle or land. A society without written language, rigid in customs and taboos, routine in its customs. Into this routine children are fitted by training or education by their elders. All is fairly definite and clear with respect to routine habits.

(2) *Nomadic society*—with property in cattle and slaves. Life is largely routine, and commands to children are positive.

(3) *Settled agricultural society*—with property in cattle and lands. Labor system in various forms: slavery, serfdom, and free (freehold peasants or farmers). Routine of life is definite and positive in fundamentals, and combined with religious sanctions.

(4) *Agricultural society* (as above) combined with commerce on a considerable scale and handicrafts entering into commercial operations. Routine of field, household, and guild is, in the main, settled and positive, and combined with religious sanctions.

(5) *Industrial society*—founded on changing science and machinery, and presenting various aspects:

(a) Industry and agriculture fairly balanced in number of persons and amount of capital employed; as in France, for example.

(b) Industry predominant in number of persons and amount of capital employed; Great Britain, for instance.

(c) Individual ownership of units of property in land and industry; western civilization generally, fifty or seventy-five years ago.

(d) Industry highly organized in corporations, labor in unions, and agriculture in cooperative marketing societies; contemporary American society.

(e) Little government intervention in processes of industry and agriculture; as illustrated in Great Britain and the United States about 1850.

(f) Extensive government intervention in processes of industry and agriculture; now almost universal.

(g) Industry and agriculture owned by the State; as in Russia.

(h) Industry and agriculture owned by individuals and corporations combined with some State ownership (highways, forests, water-power sites, etc.) and government participation in financing; as in the United States.

Dynamics of Social Living

A prime characteristic of American society, with which we are chiefly concerned, conditions any program of the social studies which is realistic in spirit and form. American society is changing or progressive—changing under the impacts of science, invention, enterprise, and thought. Early agricultural society in the United States long had fairly settled ways of living and working. Wood had to be cut and split, cows fed, wool spun and woven, foodstuffs garnered and prepared for use, crops planted and reaped. Knowledge was extensively traditional and life went on very much in the same way from year to year. Social commands were positive and clear, and generally unequivocal. Preparation for life was categorically handed down by the elders.

On the other hand, in an industrial society, such as we have today, ways of life and economy are constantly changing—new industries appear, old industries die out, new forms of property (stocks, bonds, liens, rights, and servitudes) appear and change. Routine breaks up. The age at which youth enters industry is raised. The learning of the elders is no longer completely applicable. Life becomes uncertain in many respects. Thousands, perhaps millions, well trained for jobs, can find no employment. A quest for security amid the new conditions begins—in the organization of corporations, trade unions, farmers' cooperatives, old-age pensions, unemployment insurance, and so forth.

It is in such a changing industrial-agricultural society that the American schools are carried on. This is not a theory. It is a fact.

And this American society is one among many societies in a changing world. Its well-being depends in some measure upon intercourse with other nations, upon their fortunes of peace and war. This also is a fact, open to verification.

Trends in American Economy and Culture

Over a period of many years certain trends in this dynamic society have become well marked. Many of these major trends are recorded with scholarly exactness in the great report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends (1933) and in other works equally authentic and true to observed facts. This is no place to summarize the huge volumes now open to students of the social sciences, but a few of the findings may be listed as illustrating the factors which condition the social studies:

(1) Increasing mechanization of industry and agriculture.

(2) Practical disappearance of the self-sufficing homestead and community and the substitution of specialization in industry and agriculture which makes each part depend for its prosperity upon the prosperity of other parts.

(3) Concentration of business wealth and power in the hands of a few hundred great corporations, owned by millions of stockholders, but managed by a few thousand directors and managers.

(4) Organization of industrial workers by the million in independent trade unions and in company unions.

(5) Organization of various types of farmers in cooperative societies for financing, marketing, and produce-control operations.

(6) Increasing government action designed to facilitate and control these integrating and organizing operations.

(7) Intervention of government in the processes of agriculture and industry.

(8) Increasing centralization of government control and financing in the hands of state and federal governments as contrasted with local governments—in the fields of health, education, relief, highways, and so forth.

(9) Increasing intervention of government in the distribution of wealth thru income and inheritance taxes and process taxes and thru appropriations for education, military preparation, mothers' pensions, unemployment relief, old-age pensions, and other forms of public expenditures.

(10) Increasing government regulation of property owned by individuals and corporations.

(11) Changes in the family and home life accompanying the rise of the industrial system, the use of the automobile, the development of commercialized amusements, and the appearance of crowded urban sections and multiple dwellings.

(12) Multiplication of services rendered by government thru schools, public health agencies, parks, recreational facilities, museums, libraries, hospitals, and other institutions of beneficence.

(13) Growth of devices for public insurance against hazards, unemployment, and old age—mothers' pensions, workmen's compensation, old-age pensions, and various forms of social and health insurance.

(14) Increase in social tensions arising out of conflicts among private interests on the one side and conflicts between private interests and the public interest on the other.

The American Heritage of Ideas

Besides confronting these changing economic and social conditions, the social studies have to deal with the American intellectual and cultural

heritage—an accumulation of ideas pertaining to ways of life and government. These ideas are to be found in the great documents of American history, such as the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, *The Federalist,* the writings of statesmen, poets, philosophers, novelists, and essayists.

These ideas influence our thought, are a part of our thought. Students of the social sciences cannot avoid using them, even if they would. Many of these ideas are old, very old; others are new or at least variants from the old. All appear in the social thought of our age. They condition the formulation of every program of social studies.

But ideas are not disembodied spirits. They are cherished by living persons of all sorts and conditions. They have meaning only in relation to sorts and conditions of persons, that is, to interests—economic, religious, and political, for instance. As mere abstractions they are little more than pleasantries. It is with the *practise* covered by them that students of the social sciences must deal in expounding them, if exposition is to be meaningful and realistic.

Of these ideas in the American heritage, a few may be listed as illustrations:

(1) American government is republican and democratic in nature, not monarchical, despotic, or dictatorial.

(2) The purpose of government and economy is to serve the American people, promote their interests and well-being.

(3) The moral worth of each individual is accepted and his right to an opportunity for developing his talents and powers in directions socially useful is recognized.

(4) Government is to be by discussion and consent according to preestablished forms of practise.

(5) Freedom of press, speech, and religious worship is guaranteed as a right and as necessary to the functioning of democracy.

(6) The right of the individual against arbitrary arrest, trial, and punishment is guaranteed by various legal processes, altho often violated in practise.

(7) Responsibility for using private interests and public powers in creating and maintaining a high standard of life for the American people is recognized and adopted, more or less successfully.

(8) The duty to conserve and make efficient use of the heritage of natural resources is a primary obligation.

One idea in the American heritage should be singled out for special consideration as especially dynamic, that is, the idea of progress or continuous improvement. This idea, so widely held, is in flat contradiction

to the idea of fixed routine dominant in primitive and despotic societies. It implies that the conditions in which we find ourselves do not correspond to our ideal and that they *can* be changed by individual, community, state, associational, and national effort. Hence an essential part of any realistic and workable program of social studies must be a presentation of things (homes, farms, shops, cities, parks, etc.) and practises (public and private) which closely approximate the ideal.

Conceptions of Human Values

This may appear to be sentimental. It is. It springs from human sentiments, strivings, and aspirations for the true, the beautiful, and the good. Such things do not appear in astronomy, physics, mathematics, and chemistry. The chemist as a chemist is not concerned whether the substance he manipulates is used to heal the sick or poison a personal enemy. But such things and concern about their use appear in the affairs with which the social studies deal; and ideas and situations involving them must be taken into the reckoning *if* the social studies are to cover the fulness of their subjectmatter.

Growing Social Knowledge

Such is the broad and general setting which conditions the formulation of a social studies curriculum in the United States. It is complicated and embraces intangible elements. No description of it can be complete, exact, and mathematical in every respect. Many phases are elusive, and necessarily, in the very nature of things. No teacher can *know* the total situation of American society as he knows a particular situation in hydraulics, altho some critics of the social studies seem to imagine that such knowledge is possible. But many features of it are known and accepted by a consensus of competent scholars. A part of this knowledge is beyond debate, except among the uninformed; and from year to year investigators, research workers, and trained observers are adding to our knowledge of society and its processes, supplying descriptions ever more accurate and painstaking. This growing knowledge, as well as the objective relations of American society, is conditioning, must condition, the forms, functions, and methods of the social studies in the schools.

CHAPTER II

THE ROLE OF EDUCATION AND THE SCHOOL

EDUCATION BROADLY CONCEIVED is a necessary condition of all human progress. Given man's inventive and creative powers, it is the basis of social and cultural evolution. Without education, without the possibility of transmitting the results of experience from individual to individual and from one generation to another, what we call civilization could never have appeared in the world, man would have remained forever at the level of the brute, and each new generation would have had to start at the very beginning in its struggle for survival and the improvement of life. With education, one generation can stand on the shoulders of its predecessor and the process of cultural accumulation can continue indefinitely, or until the race loses its inventive and creative powers. Moreover, it is hoped that with the appropriate kind of education those inventive and creative powers may be increased.

The School and Social Progress

Few persons would contend that the *school* is a necessary condition of *all* social progress. Education is a far broader term than schooling and embraces much that does not go on in the school. In fact, until very recent times, if man's entire career upon the earth is taken into consideration, the school played an utterly insignificant role in the total process of education. Indeed, the true school, an institution in which immature members of society are deliberately and regularly placed under the tutelage of the more mature, has existed for only the smallest fraction of this long period. Altho the historical record is incomplete, there is reason for believing that the true school is not more than four or five thousand years old, while the process of education has been going on in the world ever since the appearance of the first organism possessing the power to learn from others of its kind and living in association with its fellows. The school, like other institutions such as the church, the state, and the army, emerged as the functions to be discharged grew in complexity and difficulty and made necessary or desirable some form of special organization or arrangement. The school thus appears only in certain types of societies and is a product of special conditions.

The fact should also be noted that during most of its history the school occupied the position, not only of a minor social, but even of a minor *educational* institution. Down thru the centuries, from the dawn of recorded history to almost our own time, it reached but the tiniest part of the members of any society and then, as a general rule, only for a relatively small fraction of their lives. The great burden of education, of transmit-

ting the culture to the coming generation, of inducting the young into the varied life of the group, continued to be borne by the family, the community, the church, the institutions of industry, recreation, and government, and the informal contacts and relations which make up a large part of life in every society.

Only since the rise of industrial civilization during the past century and a half has the school achieved the position of a major educational institution. During this period, wherever industrial civilization has appeared, that is, wherever there has emerged a civilization founded on science and technology and marked by close integration of structure and function over a wide territory, the school has advanced with great rapidity, enrolling larger and larger numbers of the population, extending downward into the years of infancy and upward into the years of adulthood and drawing within the orbit of its influence new functions and responsibilities. The fact is recognized that certain phenomena associated more or less with the advance of industrial civilization, such as the growth of democracy and nationalism, have played a part in the expansion of the school.

In the United States this development of the school has been peculiarly marked. Since the middle of the last century a veritable network of schools of all grades has spread over the country from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Lakes to the Gulf. In 1930 there were reported to the federal Office of Education at Washington 247,581 elementary schools; 26,690 high schools; 1,078 colleges, universities, and professional schools; 331 teachers colleges and normal schools; 1,844 nurse-training schools; 651 private commercial schools; and 372 schools for the deaf, the blind, the feeble-minded, and the delinquent.[1] Working in these institutions were 1,037,605 teachers, or "2.1 percent of the number of persons ten years of age and over who were gainfully employed as reported by the Bureau of the Census."[2] Moreover, says the official summary of the Office of Education, "approximately 30,000,000 students were enrolled in day schools in 1930. Of these about 23,500,000 were on the elementary-school level, 4,800,000 on the high-school level, 1,100,000 on the college level, and 500,000 on various levels in special schools."[3] Thus one person in every four in the United States is attending school. In comparison with the past and other societies the enrolments in secondary and higher institutions are peculiarly notable. Judd's comment is not exaggerated: "In 1930 one of every seven persons of college age was in college and one of every two persons of secondary-school age was in secondary school. Never

[1] U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928–1930.* Bulletin, 1931, No. 20. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1932. Vol. II, p. 2.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 7.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 3.

before in the history of the world has there been such a development at the upper levels of an educational system."[4] Clearly the school has indeed become a major social institution in the United States. It is not surprising that Wissler should place mass education among the three dominant characteristics of American culture.[5]

However, before proceeding to an examination of the role of the school, we should throw out a word of caution. In spite of its enormous expansion it is by no means all-powerful in the field of education. The family, tho shorn of many of its former functions, doubtless remains the mightiest single formative influence in the life of the individual. There are also the time-honored agencies of church, occupations, and the informal associations of community life which, if not as strong as in earlier times, continue to mold the minds of the young. Then there are those relatively new instrumentalities that have either appeared or waxed powerful since the rise of industrial civilization—the press, the library, the cinema, the telephone, the radio, the automobile, and various other forms of communication. Thus the school remains but one among many educational agencies. Consequently, if it is to become a positive factor of any great strength in American society, its programs and policies will have to be wisely conceived and efficiently executed.

What Is the Role of the School in American Society Today?

To many laymen familiar with public education today and even to many teachers this question presents little difficulty. For is not the function of the school to educate, and is not education something that goes on in the school? If it could be assumed, as is here the case, that education or schooling is as clear and unequivocal in its character as a bit of stone or any other material object, with definite, known, and relatively unchanging properties, with weight and dimensions fixed and ascertainable; and if it could further be assumed, as the great majority of the American people most certainly do, that this thing called education or schooling is good for everybody in practically unlimited doses, a kind of general remedy for all ills and as beneficent in health as in sickness, then no problem would present itself, except the problem of finding the resources for providing this good thing for the entire population in unlimited abundance.

Unfortunately there is no such easy answer to the question. The school program is not objectively given or determined. On the contrary, it is

[4] Judd, Charles H. "Education." Chapter 7 in *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, by the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Vol. I, p. 329.

[5] Wissler, Clark. *Man and Culture*. New York: T. Y. Crowell Co., 1923. p. 5.

always a creation, a work of practical statesmanship, a product of the ideals, the thought, and the labors of some individual or group living and working under a special set of circumstances—geographic and cultural. This fact is clearly revealed in even the most casual study of the school systems of different countries in the world today. Such a study shows the greatest diversity in purposes, curriculums, and methods of instruction—a diversity that can be traced only to differences in culture and natural surroundings. As the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association says in its *Conclusions and Recommendations,* "education always has a geographical and cultural location; it is therefore specific, local, and dynamic, not general, universal, and unchanging; it is a function of a particular society at a particular time and place in history; it is rooted in some actual culture and expresses the philosophy and recognized needs of that culture." [6]

If this general position is sound, it follows that the question of the role of the school must lead to an examination of the nature of American society today—its basic institutions, its trends, tensions, and problems, its historic and emergent values and ideals. This, among other things, has been done briefly in Chapter I, "The Nature of Society." It has also been done in summary fashion in Chapter II of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association quoted above. Such an analysis cannot of course be repeated here. It may be said, however, that innumerable studies conducted by competent scholars during the past generation indicate very clearly that American society, along with world society, is passing thru a period of profound transition. "The most striking trend in American life today," says the Commission on the Social Studies, "and one which has become gradually more discernible over a fairly long period, is a twofold tendency toward the closer physical unification of the nation and the ever-closer integration and interdependence of all branches of economy, social activity, and culture. . . . Cumulative evidence supports the conclusion that, in the United States as in other countries, the age of individualism and *laissez faire* in economy and government is closing and that a new age of collectivism is emerging." [7] But, as pointed out in Chapter IV, "The Nature of the Social Studies," whether the society now emerging is to be called cooperative, associational, or collectivist is a matter of small consequence. "Over the name it is not profitable to quarrel. On the fact of interdependence we generally agree."

But no study of American society, however elaborate and authoritative, can dictate the philosophy and program of the school. After all the facts are in, there still remain various possibilities, any one of which might

[6] American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 31.
[7] *Ibid.,* p. 13, 16.

seem reasonable and desirable to some individual or group. The great trend referred to in the preceding paragraph might lead to the most diverse proposals. Thus one person, viewing the trend as wholly undesirable, might insist that the major aim of the school and other educational agencies should be to resist it and even to endeavor to restore the society of Andrew Jackson's time. Another, taking the opposite view, might contend that the agencies of education should accept the trend in all of its phases as desirable and proceed to promote it in every way possible. Yet another, regarding the trend with mixed feelings, might seek to employ the school to reenforce certain tendencies, weaken others, and thus play a positive role in shaping the future of society. Finally, one might argue that the advance of industrial civilization is but a ripple on the surface of eternity, that the school should be concerned only with the permanent and unchanging elements in human culture, and that consequently all discussion of social change is irrelevant. While some of these positions may be generally regarded as more tenable than others, the so-called facts in the case do not compel the acceptance of one rather than another.

The upshot of this analysis is that the role of the school will depend upon how organized education is conceived by the actual architects of the school program. And who those architects are will presumably be determined by who controls the school, on the principle that he who pays the piper calls the tune. Who then does control the school? The obvious answer of course is the American people. For do not the American people, or at least those among them who vote, select directly or indirectly the members of the board of education who in turn formulate educational policies and appoint the professional personnel? This would seem to dispose of the matter: the role of the school is whatever the American people at a particular moment in history want it to be. But is the solution of the problem so simple? The answer to this question leads the inquirer again to an examination of American society—to a study of pressure politics and all of those processes and agencies involved in the formation of effective public opinion.

Studies in American politics from Alexander Hamilton's *Report on Manufactures* to the recent Congressional investigations of income distribution and the munitions industry show that this question is an extremely complex one. The American electorate is not composed of equals. Nor are the members of that electorate engaged in a disinterested search for abstract truth. On the contrary, the citizens of the nation range from the homeless vagrant wandering over the land in search of employment to the great automobile manufacturer with his uncounted millions of wealth, his tens of thousands of employees and dependents, and his far-flung economic operations, or to the powerful publisher with his twenty-eight newspapers,

his eight periodicals, and his twenty million readers, not to mention his radio stations, his moving picture interests, and his vast property holdings at home and abroad. Also the point should be made that every community, as well as the nation, is an arena for contending groups and forces, each bent on advancing its own interests and purposes.

In the light of these considerations it appears that in contemporary American society the role of the school is determined, not by sovereign voters exercising their rights as free and independent citizens of a democracy, but rather by some momentary balance of those forces which are effective in mobilizing sentiment, molding opinion, and by one means or another influencing official action. Under such circumstances the voice of the people can scarcely be called their own. Indeed it may be the voice of faction, organized minority, and powerful vested interest.

Yet there are limits to this shaping of the public mind and will. In days of prosperity or of relative prosperity, those limits can be pushed back so far that the people may seem to be but clay in the hands of the expert manipulator and creator of opinion. But in days of adversity the course of events itself, bringing unwonted misery and privation to millions, becomes a powerful educator, arousing men to question inherited modes of doing and thinking and to venture along untried paths. Thus during the past six years the American people have changed their social, economic, and political ideas considerably. And they did not do this under the tutelage of those fifty-nine persons who, according to former Ambassador Gerard, are the real rulers of the country. In fact the change in popular mood and temper must have been extremely unwelcome to most of these men—a change that went on for the most part in spite of all they could do.

The role of the school in American society, however, is not determined entirely by these external forces. In addition to the well-organized minorities and the relatively inarticulate mass of voters there is the educational profession itself—a force that has been growing rapidly in power during the past two generations and that may be expected to become much more influential in the future. Moreover, because of the complexity and scope of the school program and the advance of professional knowledge, the actual responsibility for shaping educational policy and practise must devolve more and more upon the trained teaching and administrative staff. While the extent of this responsibility will reflect the fortunes of the struggle for power among the various groups in society, even under conditions of strict censorship, teachers and administrators will inevitably leave their positive stamp upon the school. In summary of this point it should be said that, in the very nature of the case in a complex industrial society such as our own, with the public school organized as a vast and highly complicated enterprise, for the overwhelming majority of educa-

tional questions the teaching profession can receive from the people no clearcut and definite mandates and in those few instances when it does receive such mandates their authenticity should be carefully examined.

What of the Future?

The great need in the situation is for a school program (and this is peculiarly true in the sphere of the social studies) that will deal boldly and firmly with the problems of the age, neither giving way to hysteria on the one hand, nor clinging blindly to tradition on the other, but proceeding steadily and with confidence toward the realization of the ideals of American democracy under the conditions of industrial civilization. The best guarantee of this solution of the problem lies in the development of the power and prestige, the general competence and sense of social responsibility, of the educational profession—the total body of workers in the schools of the country, embracing both teachers and administrators from kindergarten to university. While rejecting completely the idea of the autonomy of the school, teachers should be able thru knowledge, organization, and merited confidence of the people, to withstand the attacks of selfish and ignorant minorities, weather the turbulent storms of popular passion, and provide far-sighted and professional educational leadership for community and state and for the nation in its domestic and international relations.

The elevation of the profession as a whole to a position of larger influence in the shaping of educational policy also provides the best guarantee of freedom and elasticity in the educational program. Perhaps the greatest threat to education in the world today is the establishment of narrow political control over the schools and the severe regimentation of the minds of a whole generation of children. The safest check on this tendency is to be found in the strengthening of the profession. With a membership of a million men and women, widely distributed over the country and possessing most diverse backgrounds and outlooks, it could never be persuaded to formulate and administer a program of severe indoctrination. At the same time, while holding in its ranks representatives of extreme right and left positions, it could be expected to move forward steadily and in close step with the developing social situation. Thus would be preserved a democratic spirit in the schools, which in turn might help to preserve that spirit in society at large.

CHAPTER III

THE NATURE OF THE LEARNER AND THE LEARNING PROCESS

PSYCHOLOGY HAS BEARING on the problems of the social studies, as of any subject of study or instruction, in two general ways. First, the general point of view, conceptions, or theories held concerning mental life or behavior may predispose one holding such general psychological views, conceptions, or theories toward one or another of the answers to the educational problems. Thus, one adhering to the Behavioristic school in psychology might favor a different kind of curriculum or method from that favored by an adherent of the Gestalt school. It would be difficult to say what all the practical implications of all the schools of thought may be, but we can be assured that the adherents of the various schools believe, at least, that they are of vital importance.

In the second place, psychology contributes to the solution of the educational problems of the social studies by using psychological methods of investigation to study those problems which are psychological in nature. Such problems are numerous in every school subject. For example, problems in learning are more or less peculiar to each subject. The study of these problems underlies intelligent guidance of learning. Again, the gradation of the objectives and methods of the curriculum, and, as some think, even the objectives themselves, depend in large measure on the nature and mental growth of the child and youth. We may apply our general knowledge of the child and his development to these problems, and we may also study the child's behavior and growth in the attainment of knowledge or skill in the particular subject in question.

The first part of this chapter will be devoted to a very brief account of the schools and trends of presentday psychology, and the second part, to a discussion of certain particular psychological problems in the field of the social studies.

The Schools of Modern Psychology

Modern psychology must appear to the layman as a profession composed entirely of a number of warring sects. This is not correct. The psychologists who catch the public eye are the extremists, who are peculiarly emphatic in their criticism of more conservative thinkers, and who exalt their particular insights into systems of psychology. The large majority of psychologists, including some of the ablest, content themselves with the less exciting process of accumulating facts and building up hypotheses, accepting contributions to truth from any worker or school. Nevertheless, it is true that psychologists are more devoted to schools of investigation and theory than are members of older scientific groups.

Each of the modern schools is derived from the various types of psychology of the end of the nineteenth century by a process of differentiation and special emphasis, including in some cases a reaction against certain real or imagined features of the older psychology. To an observer of the wider view, each school makes some positive contribution which must be woven into any complete system. The negative criticisms, in which the special schools indulge, are directed in large measure at straw men. In such a very brief summary as this, these negative criticisms may be, for the most part, disregarded, along with the more exaggerated forms of the positive theories. We may concentrate on those facts and hypotheses which appear to have permanent value.

Early Study of Psychology

The psychology which was taught in the universities about 1900 was largely the lineal descendant of the English Association psychology and of the biological point of view introduced by Darwin's study of evolution, developed and made more exact by laboratory experimentation, which was itself derived from experimentation in physiology. These origins explain the predominant preoccupation of early laboratory psychologists with sensation, perception, and in general the intellectual side of mental life. They also explain its emphasis on analysis, on the search for the elements into which ordinary experience may be broken up. It appears that explanation was sought mainly in this identification of the simplest, unanalyzable units of experience.

It would not be correct, however, to say that the psychology of the turn of the century was wholly concerned with the analysis of sensation or perception. Even in the early years of its existence, Wundt's laboratory fostered studies of activity, for example of reaction time, as well as of perception. The study of activity or of behavior was also represented in the beginnings of mental testing, in the rather crude but suggestive studies of the mental development of children and youth, and in a few studies of learning. These, however, constituted a small minority.

Introspective Psychology

Another characteristic of the early study of psychology was that a major part of the aim was to study the characteristics of mental life in and for themselves. In part, the study was carried on by asking the "subject" to report his own experiences, by introspection, and in part the subject's behavior was observed or recorded. But the aim was primarily to analyze and describe perceptions and ideas in order to ascertain their nature and composition. At least, this was a prominent aim. The selection of this as

the whole aim of psychology and the choice of introspection as the exclusive method gave rise to the Introspectionist or Existential school, led in the United States by Titchener. This school believed that psychology could become a science only by disregarding the use or function of sensations, perceptions, ideas, or feelings and by building up a knowledge of the mental facts themselves.

Functionalism

Another school picked out a different strain in the earlier psychology and gave it the main emphasis. Members of this school believed that percepts, ideas, and feelings do not exist for themselves but as guides of the activity of the individual or person. If this is the case they held that a productive study must be concerned, not with experiences in themselves, but with their function or use. This school was, therefore, called the Functional school. Psychologists of this school do not draw a sharp distinction between the mind, consisting of consciousness, and the activities or behavior of the body. Mind is known, at least, in the adjustments which the individual makes to the world about him as well as in its subjective aspect.

During the period when Functionalism was acquiring an influential position in psychology, attention was being turned more and more to the study of adaptive activity or behavior, which fell under the two general heads of instinct and learning, instinct being the native and learning the acquired form of adaptation. More attention was also given to emotion, which by some was correlated with instinct. This emphasis opened the way to the study of animal psychology since both learned and unlearned behavior of animals may be observed and experimented upon. Functionalism and animal psychology were both influenced by the Darwinian concept of adaptation, and these two movements mutually reenforced each other.

Behaviorism

When this stage was reached a sharp cleavage began to appear between the students of subjective experience and the students of behavior. This cleavage became an open break when a number of psychologists, led by John B. Watson, denied all validity to introspection as a scientific method and declared that behavior is the only subject of psychological study. Thus, Behaviorism was born. For a number of years the Russian scientists, Pavlov and Bechterev, had been studying the conditioned reflex in animals. The Behaviorists took over the formation of conditioned reflexes as one of their principal technics of investigation, particularly in the field of emotions. Behaviorism, or objective psychology, is in the first instance a method of investigation. It happens, however, that some of the more

influential Behaviorists have announced a program for making over human nature and a mechanistic philosophy of life, and these associated features have come chiefly to represent Behaviorism in the popular mind.

Gestalt Psychology

It has been pointed out that the early scientific psychology was largely analytic. Some Functionalists, and to a greater extent Behaviorists, tended to emphasize rather narrow or specialized forms of activity or learning. The conditioned reflex, for example, does not commonly involve the action of the body as a whole but of some one gland or restricted set of muscles. The prevailing form of the trial-and-error theory of learning described learning as a sequence of acts very loosely strung together and leading to accidental success thru a largely random procedure.

A new school grew up in Germany as a protest to this analytic and "atomistic" type of study and interpretation. In the first instance it sought to explain perception, not as the sum of elementary sensations but rather as the original recognition of wholes, given directly by the stimulation of the sense organs by objects in the external world and recognized immediately in their totality. On the other side, the body is believed to act as a unit. Behavior, like perception, is not the sum of isolated parts. Learning takes place, not by stringing together a sequence of acts thru trial and error but by achieving "insight" into the problem situation which then leads directly to the appropriate act. The learner's exploration of the situation is for the purpose of getting a grasp of it, and once this grasp has been obtained the movements constitute a coherent sequence and are directed toward a recognized goal.

Purposive Psychology

Another school of psychologists has made the seeking of goals and the following of purposes the central part of its system. The system is variously called Purposive or Hormic psychology, the latter word being derived from the Greek word *horme,* an urge to action. It is the outcome of an emphasis on the instincts. In the days before the split-up into schools most psychologists, following James, believed in native "tendencies" or "dispositions" to act in certain ways in response to particular dispositions. A systematic catalog of such "instincts" and their corresponding emotions was worked out by McDougall as a basis for social psychology. A critical analysis of the activities described as instincts has led most psychologists to question seriously the view that they are innate forms of behavior or that specific native dispositions are the chief motives of behavior. The Hormic psychology, however, retains this view and at the same time develops a more general conception of purpose or inner urge as the chief

organizing principle in behavior. The emphasis on purpose might be retained without holding that it has an instinctive basis, but in point of fact the two ideas are associated by this school of psychologists.

Freudian Psychology

Thus far we have traced the schools of thought which have developed during the past generation among orthodox psychologists. Final mention should be made of a psychological theory or collection of theories which at first developed quite independently in the field of psychiatry but has recently had a good deal of influence on the studies and points of view of general psychology. The reference is, of course, to the theories of Freud and the derived theories of Adler and Jung. These theories grew out of the attempt to understand and treat the neuroses, or functional disorders of behavior, Psychoanalysis (Freud), and its derivatives, Individual psychology (Adler) and Analytical psychology (Jung), were in the first instance clinical methods. Freud, following the French school, started by using hypnotism, but later developed his own method of inducing the patient to relax and then to report all the thoughts that came to his mind having any connection with his trouble. By this method he gets the patient to explore farther and farther back in his experiences until he finally hits upon situations and emotional reactions to these situations which seem to be at the root of the present behavior. Freud finally concluded that these roots go back to experiences of early childhood.

It would be futile to try to summarize Freud's theories in a paragraph but some of their prominent features may be mentioned. Like Hormic psychology, Psychoanalysis is preoccupied with the motive forces of conduct. The role of ideas in conduct is chiefly to justify to oneself what one does from hidden motives. The motives are quite specific, they originate early and persist with little change thruout life. They are, moreover, primarily sexual in nature. But why does one need to justify the expression of one's motives, and why does conflict arise? Because one has acquired, thru social pressure, standards of conduct which conflict with the blind forces of desire. The real emotions are then repressed. If incompletely repressed the conflict continues and produces neuroses, or indirect forms of expression. Adler and Jung also emphasized hidden sources of motivation but developed somewhat different notions of their nature. Adler assigned the source of conflict to the sense of inferiority, while Jung broadened the sex impulse of Freud to become a kind of general will to power. In all three the concern is with motives and desires. Psychologists have generally been critical with the particular theories of these psychiatrists, but they recognize the importance of the whole realm of facts of behavior with which they deal. The older psychology largely neglected this field and was, therefore, seriously one-sided.

General Trends

Many psychologists have not admitted the justification for the formation of distinct schools. Most of the facts studied by the different schools were recognized in some measure by psychologists before the formation of these schools. The formation of schools has served beneficially to stimulate study of relatively neglected problems, but it has also led to some exaggeration and to misinterpretation of the views of psychologists who do not go along with the dissenters. All that is true in the special views can conceivably be incorporated into a comprehensive psychological theory. There can be no final conflict between facts and truths, and two incompatible theories cannot both be true. Hence, the truest psychology is the one which views all presentations of facts and hypotheses critically but at the same time receptively, weighing all in the light of the evidence, and from these forms a composite.

Functional Point of View

It is probably safe to say that the general functional point of view is adopted by the large majority of psychologists. They are interested, not in mental phenomena for themselves, but rather in their function in behavior. Some would go still further and say that psychology is concerned with behavior alone and that there are no mental phenomena other than behavior. If this means the entire disregard of experience as the subjectively felt or recognized aspect of behavior, most psychologists would still hold back from such a radical step. They would agree that the significance or meaning of human behavior would be largely lost if consciousness were obliterated, tho they would agree with the Behaviorists that a large part of behavior is independent of conscious control. Its factors, therefore, must be sought elsewhere than in consciousness.

Mental and Physical Activity

Psychologists, in general, no longer draw a clear distinction between mental activity and physical activity. They recognize behavior as being all of a piece. They distinguish between autonomic behavior which is relatively undifferentiated and bears chiefly on the emotions, and adaptative behavior which is capable of minute differentiation and relates to thought and overt action. They also distinguish between reflex and learned behavior. But psychology is not restricted in its relation to any one part of the body or of its activity. It is concerned with the action of muscles and glands as well as of brain and nerve, not from the point of view of their separate functioning but of their combined action in maintaining and promoting the adjustment of the organism to the environment.

Dynamics of Behavior

Probably the majority of psychologists recognize the importance of the dynamics of behavior, of what we call in education motivation. Along with this they would place greater stress on feeling and emotion than did the somewhat intellectualistic psychology of twenty-five years ago. They are impressed by the seriousness of the problem of neurosis and of the mounting number of persons in our hospitals afflicted with mental disease. Again, the problems in control of conduct which are presented by crime and war, or even by productive cooperation in the spheres of political and economic activity, offer a challenge to psychology. Educators have long recognized the problem of motivation as a vital one.

When it comes to going beyond the recognition of the problem of motivation by developing a mode of approach or a theory we encounter diversity, and it is hard to say what view has the support of the majority. One group views the problem as largely one of instinct, another as a purely mechanistic interaction between the environment and the organism, and a third as an urge which has more of the character of conscious purpose than does blind instinct.

Extreme Behaviorists believe that the control and development of conduct is achieved thru some such simple and mechanical processes as the conditioning of responses. While psychologists generally recognize conditioning as a method by which many of the feelings and attitudes of human beings become attached to particular objects or situations, they also recognize and attach importance to such factors as the person's conception of himself, of other persons, of his relation to others or his role in society, and his more or less conscious aims or purposes. To divest human life of these features because they are not so subject to quantitative laboratory experimentation as is the conditioned reflex is to sacrifice the broader and more significant truth for the narrower and less important fact. But there is no reason why either needs to be sacrificed. To do so is to fall victim of the fallacy of the either-or. The two are not incompatible. The disposition to treat them as such is merely an example of the disposition to reduce all phenomena to a single explanation. When such simplification causes us to sacrifice part of the truth it is better to be content with a dual or multiple explanation even if it impairs the neatness of our system of thought.

The Field of Learning

In the field of learning it is possible to interpret the facts of scientific experiment in such a way as to incorporate interpretations advanced by various schools. Learning, said the older psychology, is a matter of association. (Conditioning is a modern form of this conception, made definite with reference to particular cases.) The majority of modern animal psychologists,

and other psychologists who interpret human psychology in exclusively animal terms, report that learning is a matter of trial and error. They differ among themselves on the question whether repetition is an adequate explanation of improvement or whether effect or satisfaction and dissatisfaction also direct the course of learning. But this is a detail. Finally, the Gestalt psychologists emphasize insight and maturation, the latter very ambiguously. Where does the truth lie? Again, we have an example of an either-or type of thinking. If the various explanations had not become controversial issues between schools it is doubtful whether they would ever have been set over against one another as mutually exclusive hypotheses.

A survey of the whole field of learning shows that different types of learning may be distinguished, and that the methods which are emphasized in these types are different—Some psychologists have distinguished four types, the development of motor skill, the development of perception, the formation of associations of ideas, and problem-solving. The methods which are predominant in these four types differ, tho a given method is not exclusively associated with a given type. In the development of motor skill, trial and error is a prominent and essential method. In the development of perception the organization of impressions, including the complementary processes of analysis and synthesis, is the chief method. This seems to roughly correspond to the pattern of the Gestaltists. In the formation of associations and simple memorizing, repetition is a large factor, tho, of course, attention and meaning are also important conditions. In problem-solving the recognition of relations between the parts of a situation is the distinctive feature. Problem-solving has been described as "the discovery and recognition of that relationship between the elements of the problem which will lead to its solution." This, of course, is another way of describing the "insight" of the Gestalt psychology.

Possibly a complete account of learning, particularly from the point of view of education, should include, in addition to these four types, two others, namely, developing appreciations and gaining understanding. The first includes feeling as well as perception or recognition. The second is somewhat like problem-solving but differs in that the learner does not discover relations for himself but is shown them or told about them. These types await future detailed analysis.

It seems fairly clear that the activities which are classed under the general head of learning are somewhat diverse in type, whether or not we agree with the division into types which has been suggested—It also seems clear that the process or method of learning may differ from type to type and that the various cases cannot be brought under any single explanatory principle. If education were forced to choose among the proposed principles one that

was most appropriate to the social studies it would doubtless select the one which applies to the more complex forms of problem-solving rather than to the simpler forms of learning. But such a choice, in our judgment, is not necessary.

In general, it behooves the educator, as the impartially minded psychologist, not to pin his faith to any psychological school or cult. He will do well, rather, to inspect the findings of the psychological research carried on by the various schools and give ear to their interpretations, in order that he may gain light from any source on the problem of educational aims and procedures. He will not find that any school or even the combination of all the schools offers the key to the solution of his problems. They offer rather a background of understanding and clues or suggestions looking toward solutions.

If each school of psychology is in possession of some of the whole truth, even if not all of it, each school doubtless has something to contribute to educational theory and practise. A consideration of the educational implications of the various schools confirms this supposition. Education, like human behavior, is a composite of diverse parts. It can be carried forward on different fronts and by different forms of strategy.

Some forms of education undoubtedly take place thru conditioning—A good deal of education consists of acquiring the habit of doing something or feeling something in connection with an appropriate object or situation. The child learns to eat certain things and avoid eating others, to speak in certain tones of voice and not in others, to use certain modes of address to some persons and others to other persons, to go to school and perform certain duties at stated times, to like some persons, things, and actions and dislike others, to adopt certain postures. A good deal of education both in and out of the school is made up of this kind of learning. The child doesn't learn the act. The act may be a simple one which does not require learning, or it may have been learned before. But the child learns to perform the act on a certain cue, just as a dog learns to jump when his trainer says a certain word or makes a certain movement. This may be done, and commonly is done, by conditioning, or at least by a simple kind of association akin to conditioning. The act we wish performed is first elicited by hook or crook, that is, by using some stimulus that will produce the act. The cue we wish to attach to the act is given along with this original stimulus until it sets off the act by itself. The important requirement is to get the act performed along with the cue so that the cue alone will set it off in the future. For example, suppose we wish the child to learn to eat spinach. We set the dish before him when he is in the company of other children who eat spinach freely and with evident relish. Our particular child eats along with the rest. After this has happened a number of times the mere act of setting the spinach before the

child serves as a cue to eating it. We say the child has "learned" to eat it, which is entirely correct. This description of the method of this kind of learning indicates the way we may go about controlling it. To recapitulate, the procedure is to find a way to produce the act desired and connect the cue which we wish ultimately to set off the act with the circumstances that set if off in the first place. In time the cue will set off the act alone.

In many cases the learning is not so simple because the act to be learned is not one that can be performed at the outset—This is true, for example, in learning to write, to pronounce words, to handle tools, to play musical instruments, and to play games of skill. In such cases the problem is not to *induce* the learner to perform the act. It is rather to give him the kind of practise which will *enable* him to perform it. This is what is called trial-and-error learning. In general, effective practise consists in performing the act to be learned over and over again with a strong desire to accomplish a given end and as clear a notion as possible of what the end is. The approach to expert performance is usually gradual and the period of improvement may be very extended. It is evident that this form of learning is quite different from conditioning both in the way it is carried on and in the kinds of actions to which it applies.

A third type of learning, not particularly emphasized by any contemporary school of psychologists, is association of ideas and memorizing—It is illustrated in all those cases in which the task includes the association of words with objects, of words with each other, or of other symbols with objects or with each other. Learning the names of persons, telephone numbers, names of geographical places, dates, names of historical persons, are illustrations. It is not implied that learning such facts as these should be carried on without reference to their meaningful relations. Quite the contrary. But there is a rate element about such learning which cannot be entirely avoided. In general the condition of such learning is repetition of the association with intention to learn and with maximum attention on the facts to be learned, including their meaningful setting.

None of the classes of examples thus far cited touches that type of learning which is probably most important in the social studies—This is understanding and problem-solving. The social studies serve to explain how men exploit the physical world in such a way as to satisfy their needs and desires, combine with one another to attain their joint purposes, or compete with one another to attain their several purposes. The business of the learner is to understand the explanation of these matters. Insofar as it may be possible and desirable, the learner may be encouraged to puzzle out these matters himself. When the learner, as a result either of following the explanation of another or of finding the explanation himself, understands how human life

is carried on, he has attained what some psychologists call insight. He has come to apprehend some relation or set of relations. He does not do this by conditioning, by mere trial and error, or by mere juxtaposition or association. He accomplishes it by thinking over a set of facts until a relation between them becomes evident to him and they fall into some sort of pattern. During our experience with the world and thru the stimulation of the thought of others as expressed in language we become familiar with certain general types of patterns or categories of thought, such as likeness, oppositeness, relation in time or space, concomitance, and cause and effect. These constitute the framework in which we place particular facts and by which we bring them into relation with each other. Bringing facts into relation in this fashion is the highest and most distinctively human form of learning.

Purpose, which is emphasized in Hormic psychology, has already been mentioned. It is obviously not a separate kind of learning, nor does it exist apart from any particular form of mental activity. Some activities may be carried on with conscious purpose and others without it. In the majority of cases learning is probably more rapid and effective when the learner has a fairly definite purpose in mind than when he has not. The chief exception to this rule is learning thru conditioning.

The facts and principles emphasized by psychoanalysis and by psychiatry in general relate chiefly to motivation, so far as they relate to learning at all. Learning is frequently hindered by emotional conflicts, especially when they become severe. On the other hand, complete peace of mind may not provide sufficient stimulus to effort. The chief business of the school, so far as the emotions are concerned, is to discover and put into operation the principles of mental hygiene.

Specific Problems of a Psychological Nature

Socialization of the Child

A problem which has general as well as special meaning is the question how the child becomes a social being. One of the principal aims of the social studies may be described as the socialization of the child. In what does socialization consist and on what does it depend? The two broadly contrasted and typical answers to this question give a specific example of a cleavage which is represented in the schools of thought already described.

One answer goes back to instinct[1] *and finds the answer largely in individual psychology, that is, in the nature of the individual organism*—According to this answer the child becomes socialized because he has instincts which govern his behavior in relation to other persons. One instinct prompts him to show anger, another love or affection, another dominance, another submission, and so on.

[1] McDougall, William. *Introduction to Social Psychology*. rev. and enl. ed. Boston: John W. Luce and Co., 1926.

Aside from the fundamental question whether the particular expressions of the emotions which occur among human beings are more largely native or acquired (the general question of instinct) we may raise the quite pertinent question of what it is in the behavior of others which arouses these emotional expressions. For example, what is regarded as an insult depends in considerable part on the conventions of the group. Again, this explanation is confined to emotional behavior. Even tho we admit emotion as an important part of social behavior it is certainly not the whole. It is the part, moreover, which is most largely individual in character.

The other answer[2] *finds socialization to be the acquisition by the individual of those practises which have been developed thruout the long history of the race and which have been crystallized in social institutions*—Social behavior is not explicable on the ground of merely individual characteristics. It is super individual. This super-individual character does not consist of a mythical social mind. It is represented rather in social institutions, general modes of behavior which control in large measure the behavior of individuals. Some of these institutions concern thought and its development. Such are language and mathematics. Some relate more directly to overt expression. Such are the use of tools and the fine arts. Taken together they constitute those forms of thought and behavior which characterize a society and which the individual acquires in the course of becoming an integral member of society.

The question which naturally follows is, How does the child become socialized? This leads us back to the more general question of the nature of learning. At the risk of oversimplification we may suggest as possible answers, conditioning of responses, trial-and-error learning, and ideational learning, including problem-solving.

It would be easy to find advocates of each of these methods as the chief if not the sole method of the process of socialization—If we reviewed the arguments in support of each method we would find that they referred especially to a given kind of socialization or to a given conception of the nature of socialization. Conditioning refers particularly to the development of particular emotions or attitudes in relation to particular objects, persons, or ideas. Trial-and-error learning relates particularly to the development of skill in dealing with persons or acting in social situations. Ideational learning brings about a comprehension or understanding of the relations of persons in society and of the conditions which affect these relations, such, for example, as the economic or geographic or psychological. Such understanding may in turn serve as a means of control of behavior.

It is probably not necessary or desirable to regard these methods as mutually exclusive. The school has, in the past, emphasized ideational learn-

[2] Judd, Charles H. *The Psychology of Social Institutions.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. 346 p.

ing. There is some disposition among both psychologists and educators to criticize this emphasis and to shift the emphasis to direct experience and to learning from direct experience by conditioning and trial and error. There is no question that a part of one's socialization grows out of these forms of learning thru direct dealings with people. But this is not the only kind of socialization, nor is it the only kind which is calculated to promote social progress or to provide the basis for the solution of pressing social problems. The promise of advance is to be found also in intelligent study and analysis, taking its starting point, of course, in direct experience. It seems clear that the first and chief business of the school is to develop a clear grasp of social facts and problems. This is the school's distinctive function. It shares with other agencies the task of developing attitudes and skills thru direct experience.

We may pause at this point to comment further on the current notion that ideas do not affect conduct—This is one of those one-sided notions which sometimes come from the exaggeration of a hitherto neglected truth. Modern psychology has shown that feelings, impulses, and conduct frequently originate in experiences which are not recognized, and that the individual is sometimes the last person to know why he acts as he does. But to jump from this positive fact to the negative conclusion that conduct is not influenced in any important degree by ideas, conceptions, or insights is to commit a most egregious fallacy. Further, it is to ignore the positive evidence that ideas do influence conduct. To take a trivial illustration, if I understand that a person is insane I will interpret his conduct toward me and will act toward him differently than if I regard him as responsible.

To say that ideas affect conduct does not mean that a given idea will automatically express itself in conduct, that conduct is not affected by impulses and desires, or that the verbal expression of an idea is a real factor in conduct unless it represents a genuine idea. The evidence that verbal expressions do not necessarily correspond to action is an indication that we must not place undue reliance on verbal expressions; it is no indication that we must abandon thought as a means of control of conduct. The fact that criminals are not typically intellectually dull but may be very bright is no refutation of our position. Brightness does not guarantee sound beliefs. Beliefs are influenced by teaching as well as by the capacity of the learner.

Special Nature of Intellectual Learning

Since an essential task of the school is to promote intellectual learning, a question arises concerning the special nature of this learning. Does it consist mainly in attaining understanding and accepting beliefs or is it the independent solution of problems and formation of judgments? This is the

familiar question of indoctrination. Certain comments may be made on it from the strictly psychological point of view.

The first comment is that indoctrination and independent thinking are not distinguished from each other in anything like the clearcut fashion that is often assumed—There is some indoctrination in all teaching, whether formal or informal, and independent thinking may occur in a smaller or larger portion of the subject being studied. The second comment is that indoctrination may be more or less deliberate and may be carried on directly and systematically or indirectly and casually. A third comment is that the capacity for making independent judgments varies with a variety of factors, including at least the intellectual capacity of the learner, his interest and initiative, the time and energy available for investigating a subject, the number of subjects any one person can investigate thoroly, and the accessibility of data for study. It seems to be sometimes assumed that making independent judgment is dependent merely on the encouragement or guidance given by the teacher and the attitude of the learner. These are influential but they are far from being the only conditions necessary.

The intellectual aspects of teaching and study may be said to have to do with giving and acquiring information, promoting and gaining understanding, and encouraging and developing independent thought—The proportions of these three pairs of processes will vary with the circumstances. Instruction will always contain a large share of the first two; but good teaching will not deliberately and arbitrarily control the thinking of pupils. The mature mind of the teacher will of necessity influence the interpretation of facts made by the immature learner; but the interpretation will grow out of an honest study of the facts and will not be consciously imposed upon pupils. The conscientious teacher will point out differences in interpretation arrived at by competent scholars and by other influential persons, and will not consciously make disciples on controversial issues. In general, the aim of the teacher will be to develop an objective, open-minded respect for truth, and the disposition and habit of searching for it within the limits of one's circumstances and ability.

Besides these intellectual aspects of teaching and study the modification and development of attitudes are also important—Belief, or the adherence to a given doctrine, is in part a matter of feeling and active response, as well as of comprehension. The attitude of the teacher will inevitably be communicated in some measure to the pupils. Approval and disapproval, whether expressed deliberately or unintentionally, are both contagious. Teaching would be a dull and dead performance without such contagion.

But it would be a betrayal of the office of teaching to regiment the pupils' feelings, as it would be to regiment their intellects. It is necessary to give young people the opportunity and encouragement to develop their own attitudes, based on their experience, knowledge, and reflection. To permit this it is sometimes necessary for the teacher to restrain his enthusiasms and conceal his attitudes lest he produce mere rubber stamp personalities.

How far the school should become the instrument for the propagation of an official social policy promulgated by the government or by the body of teachers themselves, is perhaps a question beyond the strictest bounds of psychology. The description of good teaching just given is compatible with psychology but is not the only description which is compatible with psychology. Rigid and deliberate indoctrination might be made effective, for a time, by taking advantage of certain psychological principles of teaching. Whether it is good social policy, however, is a different question.

The Mental Growth of the Child and of Youth

A somewhat general question in this field is whether the child by nature is inevitably predisposed to some one of the alternative types of social behavior. For instance, we may ask whether the child is by nature an individualist, or whether he is actually or potentially a collectivist. Similarly, we may ask whether he is by nature a militarist or a pacifist. Perhaps the precise question is whether the child, if left to himself, will become one or the other of these types of persons, or whether what he becomes may be controlled in large degree by education.

The prevailing emphasis in psychology implies a large degree of modifiability of behavior—No specific organized form of social behavior would be regarded by the majority of psychologists as inborn or fixed. Thus, the assertion of individual rights in a particular situation or cooperative action toward a given end is largely the product of learning. Again, whether one favors war between nations and takes part in bringing it on, or, on the other hand, prefers and strives for peace is not determined by instinct. There is no such thing as an instinct for these organized forms of activity.

This is not to say that such activities are not rooted in natural desires and impulses. The individual is not putty in the hands of mechanical external forces. But it is equally true that individualistic and collectivistic behavior goes back to some native disposition. Educative influences cannot guide the development of behavior if they do not recognize and use these dispositions. But the native impulses are various in kind and are capable of expression in various ways. They do not, therefore, determine the specific form which must be taken in social behavior. This varies from age

to age and from people to people. It is, therefore, largely subject to the control of educational forces, both formal and informal.

We may ask how far and in what specific ways the content or form of teaching in the social sciences is affected by the changes in the child's abilities, attitudes, or feelings as he advances in age from childhood to maturity. It may be accepted as axiomatic that they will be so affected. The child changes greatly in intellectual power, in conceptions of the world, and in social attitude during his residence in the school. Some problems suitable for adolescents are meaningless to the primary child. There must be progression. For applications of this principle see Chapters VI and VIII.

It is not pretended that our knowledge of mental growth is sufficient to indicate in detail just what changes should be made in curriculum or method to fit them to stages of development. Direct study of the problem is needed. However, a few suggestions may be made.

It is a well-known fact of child psychology that the child's conceptions of the world undergo a marked development from the early years to adolescence, and that this development continues into adolescence—The crudity of the child's ideas and their gradual improvement have been traced in a number of fields of experience and thought. Many years ago examples were gathered of the young child's bizarre and anthropomorphic theological conceptions. More recently his notions of the nature of the physical world have been studied, in particular by Piaget. This investigator describes the child's ideas as characterized by realism, animism, and artificialism. By realism is meant the failure to distinguish between objective reality and thought; by animism the ascription of feeling, intention, and thought to all objects, animate and inanimate alike; and by artificialism the idea that all growth and development is the product of manufacture or artifice analogous to making objects. The development of the child's language is a reflection of the growth of his perceptions and of his ideas. His drawings similarly indicate the maturing of his recognition of the world about him. His understanding of number and recognition of time both advance from the simplest and most rudimentary perceptions to highly complex and abstract systems of ideas. The development in all these respects is most obvious during childhood but it continues in many ways to later adolescence and doubtless in some specialized respects as long as one continues to study.

These examples are sufficient to support the general thesis that any study making intellectual demands on the child must be nicely adapted to the stages of his intellectual growth—His knowledge of the world and the system of interpretation characteristic of a given level of culture is not something he is born with. It is something he has to achieve by pro-

longed reflection upon his experience, guided by his more experienced contemporaries and by the wise and good of all ages of the world. It is the fashion in modern education to minimize the amount of intellectual growth that is necessary, as a consequence of the critical reaction against the somewhat exaggerated views of G. Stanley Hall and his followers. This may lead to even more serious errors. To overreach the child's mental grasp is to lead to verbalism and superficiality which is a menace to true intellectual grasp. It is, of course, also necessary to pitch the level of instruction high enough to stimulate the child's interest and to challenge his power of thought. We may err in one direction as much as in the other. In the past we have probably underestimated the child's capacity.

Of particular concern to the social studies, also, is the development of the child's social attitudes and interpretations—He necessarily looks on social matters from his own point of view; and this point of view is at first a narrow and predominantly egocentric one. Only gradually does he attain even a relatively objective or disinterested view of the relations of persons to each other. Parenthetically, even the average adult is probably much more primitive in this respect than we often assume. The child is a child over against the world of adults. He is dependent and his attitude is one of joint submission and demand for the satisfaction of wants. He readily recognizes authority and submits to correction. His notions of justice and punishment are external and mechanical. He is also a member of a society within a society, the society of childhood. Within this realm he develops a system of rights, privileges, and responsibilities running parallel to but more or less distinct from that of adult society. These two social realms must ultimately become amalgamated or fused, tho this process is never quite complete. The failure of these realms to completely join is perhaps the cause of the double morality, which is probably universal.

These facts of mental growth must have an important bearing on the topics and mode of treatment of the social studies in successive grades or stages of education—Doubtless a certain amount of adaptation has been achieved by common sense and trial and error. Much more than this is required, however. Suggested applications may be made based on a general study of intellectual development; but what is needed is a direct study by test and experiment of the child's ability to grasp and to learn the specific facts and ideas of the social sciences at each age or grade level. A beginning was made some years ago by Burton's test of civic concepts.[3] The field in general, however, largely awaits cultivation.

[3] Burton, William H. *The Nature and Amount of Civic Information Possessed by Chicago Children of Sixth-Grade Level.* Unpublished doctor's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1924.

PART TWO

THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

CHAPTER IV

THE NATURE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

THERE ARE TWO LEVELS on which discussion may proceed. The first is the level of apparent simplicity, routine, and assurance. Each one of us carries on a large part of his life at the level of accepted routine. The sun rises. We get up soon afterward and have breakfast. We may go to the barn and throw hay down for the horses, or to the office and take up one after another the things that are there and have to be done. President Eliot once remarked that about 90 percent of his work could be done just as well by an office boy. It required no thought, no consideration of baffling questions answerable in many ways. So with the social studies.

Ways of Thinking about the Social Studies

Almost any group of American citizens can meet and agree upon many apparently simple matters to be taught in the schools: the Constitution of the United States, the constitution of the state, the map layout of states, cities, railways, agriculture, and industries, the map of the community and national institutions—Congress, chambers of commerce, schools, associations by the thousands for this, that, and the other, and so on to the end of a long catalog. They could agree that love of our country should be inculcated, that obedience should be emphasized in the course of instruction. Such agreements are reached on the level of apparent simplicity.

We can live, work, and talk on the level of apparent simplicity with relative ease as long as the routine is not disturbed—by questions arising in our minds, by rude challenges thrust upon us by outsiders, by a dislocation of things which threatens our bread and butter. But in private affairs the life of each one of us is more or less disturbed by events out of the routine. The kitchen stove explodes, a storm blows a tree over on the house, a letter of dismissal comes from the boss, hungry and unemployed men make a disturbance in the streets nearby, or a war breaks out in Europe. The routine operations and ideas will not suffice. We have to think, to wonder what ought to be done, to make choices, to do something out of the routine, the results of which we cannot exactly foresee.

To go back to the social studies, our routine of apparent simplicity and agreement is likewise occasionally, if not frequently, jarred or challenged. A great depression sweeps over the United States. Industry and agriculture function badly, so that millions are unemployed, cannot meet their bills, or are in peril of losing their farms or homes. Relatives move in on us as non-paying guests. Or somebody asks troublesome questions. For example, What is this Constitution which we are to teach? Do you mean just the

written words of the great document itself? What about differences of opinion over the meaning of the words, expressed by the Supreme Court from time to time and by presidents and senators? A bright girl breaks in with a query: "That great patriot, J. M. Beck, says that the New Deal is unconstitutional and President Roosevelt says that it is constitutional. Who is telling the truth, teacher?"

At once the routine of agreement, simplicity, and certainty is broken—for those who know very much about the subject and are not content with expressing mere personal opinions and prejudices. It is at this point, as in private affairs, the pain of thought begins. Most of us do not like it. We want things to go on smoothly, the pay check to come in regularly, and breakfast to be served on time. It would be nice if things could go on forever that way—perhaps.

It is when we are compelled, for one reason or another, to mend a broken or challenged routine and take thought about it, that trouble begins for us. Then the once apparently simple thing becomes complicated and difficult for us. Then we must rise to another level of consideration—one above the routine and the certain. And the higher we rise and the more we know, the less simple the apparently simple becomes. If we do not watch our step, we get up into the realm of metaphysics, which, as William James once remarked in effect, is what you have when you think long and hard about anything; yea, even the simplest thing, such as our duty to our neighbors. If we do not check ourselves by what is called common sense, we may get clear out of touch with ordinary life as it must be lived and we may grow so toplofty that we do not care anything about matters on the routine level, at least while our pay check comes in every month.

Many an angry debate between so-called specialists and teachers grows out of their failure to recognize those two levels of consideration. The teacher, compelled to face routine and to teach something, becomes impatient with the specialist who has years to spend on the reign of Louis XIV or the theory of business cycles and insists on the inadequacy of anything less than his multitudinous knowledge of facts and ideas. The specialist, on the other hand, grows impatient with the teacher hard-pressed by the instant need of things who cannot master everything and present it in the classroom. Sometimes they call each other names, and this tends to divide them all the more. Nothing could be more unfortunate. This is not mere theory. A German scholar, one of the wisest men of our generation, said not long ago: "The misfortunes of Germany are due in a large measure to the fact that German scholars looked down on school teaching and refused to put their learning at the disposal of teachers in the schools and the masses of the people." German scholars would not wrestle with

the hard problems confronting teachers, superintendents, and laymen in general, thus making their scholarship ineffective for life.

Equally unfortunate is the habit which some teachers display of calling "subjectmatter specialists" old dodos who write vaguely and cannot teach. We all sympathize a little with this view, for some of the most learned scholars are wretched teachers. But calling each other names, altho it relieves our feelings and gives positive pleasure, does not help very much in clarifying our tasks. Good temper, patience, and a lot of honest humility are required in that operation. In the end we shall differ about many things, for that is one of the penalties of being human. But we can, by exercising patience, discover more positively just what it is that we differ about and present our issues more clearly to the judgment of mankind. And we may be surprised by the number of agreements. It is with these preliminaries and in this spirit that the following pages have been written.

The Social Studies Are Concerned with Human Relations

What do we mean by the term "social studies"? Definitions of terms involving human beings are always vague and more or less false, for the things defined are not isolated things like sticks, stones, and pieces of iron which can be separated in fact from one another. No human action or saying can be actually isolated from actions and sayings that have gone before, that are going on concurrently, and that will go on in the future. This is a frightful thought, but it seems to correspond with the facts in the case of human affairs, with which the social studies deal.

The social studies embrace bodies of knowledge and thought pertaining to the relations of human beings—men, women, and children—to one another and to the physical environment in which they live and work. Both terms, knowledge and thought, must be kept in mind if the nature of the social studies is to be grasped. Knowledge consists of facts and of generalizations based on facts generally agreed upon and open to verification by inquiry. For example, we know that the federal government was set up under the Constitution in 1789, and that Franklin D. Roosevelt was inaugurated President in 1933. Again, we know that the death rate in American cities has fallen in recent years. This is a fact or, rather, a generalization based upon many facts. The literature of the social studies is crowded with such facts and established generalizations. Without facts and authentic generalizations the social studies would not be "realistic," would not correspond to life as lived.

The Social Studies Involve Thought as well as Knowledge

But within the literature of the social studies is included thought or opinions respecting many things, such as the character of public personali-

ties or the desirability of pursuing one course or another. In the writings on history, for instance, we encounter the opinion that George Washington was among the greatest military commanders of all times and also the view that he was a second-rate officer lacking in boldness and vigor of action. In one work on economics we read that an increase of tariff duties would bring benefit to the country in general, and in another that a reduction of the tariff would redound more to the public good. Even among experts of high competence differences of opinion appear in respect to policies that should or should not be adopted.

Theoretically knowledge and thought can be separated; but when we come to the problem of putting many facts and generalizations together we find that thought or opinion concerning values cannot be entirely excluded. All the facts of history, economics, politics, and sociology cannot be presented in any schoolroom or book. Many facts are not known. Those which are known are so numerous that not even Methuselah could hope to assemble them. So in every course in the social studies, some facts are *selected* for presentation. They are not only selected but they are more or less *organized;* that is, they are put together in some order or on some plan.

Now into the process of selecting and organizing facts thought or opinion respecting utility or values inevitably enters. Facts do not select themselves. They are chosen because the chooser thinks that they are significant for some purpose in his mind. They are grouped in units, chapters, sections, and lessons, which are thought to be significant, useful, and important. We choose facts for teaching purposes not only because they are true, for all truths are equally true. The mere fact that a statement is true is no compelling reason for making it in a book or a classroom. We choose facts which we think it desirable for pupils to know. We choose them according to some scheme of values in our mind [1]—according to our ideas of the good and the beautiful. So it is impossible in the social studies to obtain a general scientific agreement on particular selections of facts, such as we get on the proposition that the earth is round. It may be too bad that this is true of the social studies, but it seems to be true. Knowledge of this reality appears to be the beginning of wisdom.

Social Studies Contrasted with Other School Subjects

No sharp line divides the social studies from literature, languages, the arts, geography, and the natural sciences. Yet they are concentrated on human relations, rather than on matters of grammar, personal apprecia-

[1] This point of view may be called a "frame of reference," borrowing a phrase from contemporary physics. The phrase is merely convenient and thought-provoking. Anyone can choose another if he does not like it.

tion, or physical objects. For example, they are not concerned with whether any formula in chemistry is exact; but they are concerned when it is proposed to use any chemical formula to purify the water supply of a city, poison a neighbor, or kill enemies in war. Whether one type of versification is more sonorous than another is not a matter for the social studies; but literature comes into their purview when poem and song inspire people to act together for some common design. Many books in the field of the social studies, such as John Ruskin's *Unto This Last,* are great pieces of literature; nevertheless, it is not their style that makes us include them under the social studies. Languages are social products used in social relations; but that fact need not bother the teacher engaged in trying to hammer a conjugation into the heads of youth. A novel may give a more truthful and realistic picture of an age than a work in history dealing with it; but it remains a novel, not history. Owing to the interconnection of all school subjects, teachers of each must know something of the others—the more the better—if they are to teach their own specialties in an understanding way.

Comparison of Social Studies with One Another

The social studies are all alike in that they deal with human beings in their relations to one another and their physical environment. They may be divided, however, into two groups, for the sake of convenience: (1) those which deal with things as they now are or are supposed to be; and (2) history. Here the difference lies in the span of years or "time depth" employed by the writer or thinker.

Those social studies which deal with contemporary affairs do not go back many years in the facts and illustrations chosen. They may go back two, five, ten, or even twenty-five years but their interest is primarily in the contemporary scene—community, nation, or world—or some phase of it. This group of social studies is divided into branches, according to the aspects of human relations chosen for consideration. For instance, economics is primarily concerned with the relations involved in the production and distribution of wealth, more narrowly, material goods such as food, clothing, and shelter. Politics takes for its area the human relations established in government—town, village, city, state, national, and international. Sociology, conceived broadly, embraces all human relations; at all events, it includes relations not covered by economics and politics—religious, cultural, and beneficent associations, the family, recreation, and all habits and customs not deemed merely economic and political. Social psychology considers the intellectual and emotional aspects of social relations, including propaganda and the struggle of the ambitious for power in society. If geography is to be included in the social studies, as it should be, it must

lay emphasis on the relations of human beings to their physical environment rather than on "earth facts" as such.[2]

History is the most difficult and comprehensive of all—it takes within its scope everything that has happened on this earth since the human race began its career here. It may be divided into histories of periods and peoples, for convenience only; the histories of periods and peoples are enclosed in fact in the large sweep of universal history.

Yet none of these branches describes, or presents knowledge about facts wholly separable. All deal with the common object—human beings in relation to one another and to their physical environment. There is no such thing as an objective economic fact or political fact or cultural fact standing wholly apart from other human facts. We may perhaps separate ideas of facts in our minds for special treatment, but objective facts in life are parts of a larger web or have many phases. For example, buying a necktie is an economic fact, but it involves artistic taste and the social and moral conditions in which the necktie is manufactured and worn. Hence when, for the sake of convenience, emphasis is laid on one aspect of human relations—economic, for instance—other aspects must be pointed out, if even that aspect is to be treated realistically. And it is the special obligation of instruction in history to show the wide range of cultural as well as political and economic relations. When the purposes of instruction in the social studies are firmly grasped, then the maintenance of balance or unity among the several branches is facilitated. They are linked in that they treat a common object—relations of human beings in society; they are arbitrarily divided for convenience in dealing with chosen aspects of that common object; they are united again in the purposes which control selection and instruction.

Prime Purposes of the Social Studies Program

When we come to the purposes of the social studies in the school, we face the question of our thought about them and our desires. The billions of facts recorded in books on history, economics, politics, and sociology, or any selections of them, do not tell us what use we must make of them, any more than chemicals in themselves tell us whether they are to be employed to poison neighbors or to heal the sick. We ourselves individually and in groups decide the question of purposes and uses. Since matters of opinion enter at this point, we necessarily find more or less variety in our thoughts. Yet on many points there is agreement, such a general agreement that large numbers of us can work together in a certain way and go along together a certain distance. It is true that some educators in the United States hold that schools should merely inculcate a love of the good life for the individual or a purely

[2] Bowman, Isaiah. *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part V. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 223-27.

"scientific" spirit and that it is not the business of the schools to make "good citizens," or use learning as a means to any ends. But the number of such persons is small. Doubtless the great majority of people believe that it is the function of the social studies to serve some purposes.

Among these purposes the following are generally accepted as obligations of education in the social studies:

(1) *It is the purpose of the social studies to give to pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and world—the social and physical setting—in which they live and are to live and make their way.* The social studies are to show as best they can the relation of mankind to its physical environment (social geography) and then how industry, agriculture, government, and social organizations, such as chambers of commerce, trade unions, granges, and political parties, are actually carried on. They are to do this in order that pupils, when leaving the schools, may take part actively and effectively in social life and institutions. This participation in some form is deemed inevitable, useful, and desirable in sustaining individuals themselves and the American society of which they are parts.

Now a true picture of communities, states, the nation, and the world shows many facts beyond dispute, many opinions held by different persons and groups, and frequent clashes of opinions and interests. No large community carries on its work without developing differences of opinion respecting the way things should be carried on. Some groups believe that the tariff should be lowered; others want to have it higher. Some groups believe that labor organizations should be confined to single plants—company unions; others believe that labor should be organized in one independent federation embracing all plants of a given kind. And so on thruout community life as a going concern. Hence we are compelled to bring into any true picture of a community, or of a nation, facts, common opinions, differences of opinion, and methods employed in settling differences of opinion.

(2) *A second purpose of instruction in the social studies grows out of the first, namely, preparation of pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, states, and nations—a cooperation interracial, interreligious, and intereconomic.* This obligation is laid upon the schools by the peculiar nature of American society today (see Chapter II). Whereas in 1830, let us say, American economic society consisted almost entirely of single units—farms, plantations, factories, stores, and other enterprises managed by their owners, American economic society is now highly interdependent. Specialization and differentiation in industry and agriculture, transportation, communication, and the growth of great corporations, trade unions, and farmers' cooperatives have

made each part of the country dependent upon other parts, each individual upon other individuals, and in some cases each nation upon foreign countries, for happiness and prosperity. With passing years interdependence seems to increase, as the report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends indicates. This closely knit, integrated, corporate, organized society is different in nature from the highly individualistic society of 1830 in America. Various names have been invented to distinguish it from the older order—cooperative, associational, and collectivist. Over the name it is not profitable to quarrel. On the fact of interdependence we generally agree. Since this is true the social studies are bound to develop the knowledge, skills, ideas, and ideals appropriate to the contemporary order. Should teachers do otherwise they would fail to prepare pupils to take part in life as they find it on leaving school; indeed as they find it in the world around them while they are in school.

(3) *A third purpose of instruction in the social studies is to develop character: to give the pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.* Surely we cannot say that teachers engaged in imparting knowledge embraced within the social studies can be utterly indifferent respecting uses made of it in after life. Knowledge of the banking business may be employed to wreck and ruin banks as well as to conduct them in a way serviceable to the public. Can any teacher say in cold blood that he or she does not care whether such knowledge is used in one way or the other? At all events most school authorities hold that one of the ends of instruction in the social studies is to foster the nobler traits of human nature: the will to good, the will to a life generous and thoughtful, capacity for sacrifice in common interests, loyalty to many duties, as well as skills in the sciences, arts, and ways of making a living, individual and community.

(4) *A fourth purpose of the social studies, altho it may come under the head of method, is both a purpose and a prerequisite to the attainment of other purposes; it is training in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society.* What are these processes? They include: acquisition of knowledge concerning sources of information respecting social questions and realities, skill in the use of these sources, skill in selecting, verifying, and checking these sources for authenticity, skill in exploring and stating various sides of controversial issues, and skill in discussing and weighing them. American democracy works thru study of appearing needs, formulation of remedial measures, public discussion, adjustment and compromise, decision, and action. The intellectual processes requisite to individual life are akin to those operating in American society. It should, therefore, be reckoned a prime purpose of the instruction in the social studies to give training in the exercise of analytical, critical, verifying, and constructive

powers thru school practise in numerous concrete cases, historical and contemporary. Here history is especially useful in that it is more remote from the heats and distempers of contemporary life.

The Necessity for Freedom in Teaching Social Studies

Since it is one purpose of the social studies to give pupils a realistic knowledge of society, and since that realistic knowledge shows as indisputable fact differences and clashes of opinion in society, teachers in this field must have generous freedom to present knowledge of differences of opinion and clashes of interest in the schoolroom. This freedom is not and cannot be absolute; nor is it to be used without reference to grade levels and other considerations; nor is it to be violated by using the schoolroom as a place to force personal opinions and dogmas upon the pupils; but freedom is necessary if teachers are to be loyal to knowledge. Otherwise their pictures of society would not be realistic, that is, true to fact. For example, a history of the United States with all tariff controversies omitted would be false history.

To be sure, some persons fondly imagine that they can exclude controversial questions from consideration in the schoolroom. This insulation is impossible if anything is taught in the schoolroom. Even the question whether there should be any schools for the masses of the people has long been and still is a controversial theme. Whether natural science should be taught in schools is a controversial question, or involves controversial questions when the issue of what scientific facts (sex, evolution, and so forth) is faced. What the persons who are anxious for non-controversial subjects really mean at the bottom of their hearts are subjects presented in a way satisfactory to their own settled prejudices.

So the business of the social studies cannot be fixed up like the multiplication table, beyond debate, good for all times and places. It may be troublesome and unfortunate that this is so, but the stubborn fact remains. There are, no doubt, many simple-minded persons who imagine that they can make a non-debatable scheme of social instruction for the schools, but they are persons who know little or nothing about the subjectmatter of the social sciences or their history as schemes of arrangement and thought. Willy-nilly, the social studies deal with debatable and debated issues, and any organization of these studies is debatable and debated. Of course, there are many facts in the social studies that are well established. For example, Eugene V. Debs ran for President on the Socialist ticket in 1920 while in prison for violation of federal law against seditious utterances. But should this fact be taught in the schools? If so, why? The social sciences as sciences are not established beyond discussion and differences of opinion. If we believe in the dogma of respect for truth, then we must accept this as final.

Not only do the social studies deal with debatable questions; they also deal with changing issues. This element of change involves emerging questions and problems. The social studies, if realistic in conception, cannot be confined to reciting past phrases, traditions, and events. They must come to grips with new things. Every day the newspapers bring reports on these new things—a new act of Congress, a new executive order, a revolution in Germany, a war in Manchuria, and so on forever and forever. This is troublesome also. Julius Caesar cannot rise from the grave and write a new chapter for his work on the Gallic War, but new chapters in economics, politics, and sociology are being written by changing events. It may be too bad that this is true, but it seems to be so. And teachers must select a few items from among millions for consideration in the classroom. What a responsibility!

If teachers are to have freedom in dealing with controversial and shifting issues, they must also have wide and accurate knowledge of the differences of opinion and the nature of community processes in settling them. In the development of true knowledge of situations, each particular situation must be viewed from different angles and in a judicial spirit, and mere personal opinions excluded as far as possible. Inevitably the operation requires great tolerance and forbearance on the part of teachers, pupils, and the community. It is always a strain on human nature to "give the other fellow his say," to grant the opposite sex a full hearing, to listen to distasteful or objectionable ideas.

At all events, the schools as public institutions are under solemn obligation to maintain the freedom of teaching necessary to prepare pupils for taking part intelligently and thoughtfully in the various phases and conflicts of family and community life. And communities are under obligation to be fair and impartial in considering the function of the schools in this respect. To be sure, absolute fairness and impartiality are seldom if ever vouchsafed to human nature; but all of us can attain a certain degree of self-control in this respect. If the schools were more effective in this phase of their work, many of our conflicts in society might be settled with less bitterness and waste.

Indoctrination and the Social Studies

Like many words used in contemporary debates, the term indoctrination—which comes from the Latin word "to teach"—is often employed without any effort to explore its exact meaning. The term may be used to mean the inculcation of a series of absolute articles of faith which must be taken blindly and not questioned. In this sense indoctrination is out of place in the public schools. Yet any selection of social facts for instruction, or any declaration of purposes in such instruction, rests on a belief in its value and utility to society. That any selection must take a given form and must

serve specific purposes cannot be proved. It rests at bottom on a consensus of belief and conviction. To say that all sides of each debated issue should be fairly considered, that the teacher should take a judicial attitude, that no positive conceptions of any kind should be squarely presented, or that controversial questions should not be introduced at all is to utter a doctrine or teaching which is founded on some belief in values beyond the range of unequivocal proof.

It is one of the findings of contemporary sociology that some conception of values in our minds, some "frame of reference," controls our selection and emphasis in instruction in the social studies. It is by recognizing this fact that we can acquire a certain humility which will prevent our instruction from hardening into the extreme form of dogmatism to which indoctrination may be rightly applied. The spirit of instruction, whatever the purposes and methods, is quite as important as the letter of the instruction. A narrow spirit may kill the most liberally conceived letter of the law, and if it is dominant, mechanical safeguards are as naught. Where the generous spirit is ardently cherished, no letter of law, however harsh in form and statement, can triumph over humanity.

Preparation for Teaching the Social Studies

The first duty of the teacher is to consider and clarify his controlling conception of American society, by the study of the greatest and noblest thinkers who have contributed to the American heritage, and by the acquisition of knowledge concerning the dreams, hopes, and aspirations of mankind. The ideal can never be reached but a beginning can be made with a study of the New Testament, the writings of Plato and Aristotle, the teachings of Thomas Aquinas and John Ruskin, and the works of the founders of the American Republic, for example. This is the "inspirational" literature, often scorned by hard-minded empiricists and so ruthlessly excluded from their scheme of values.

The next duty is the long, arduous, and unremitting study of the great classics in history, economics, politics, and sociology. This involves years of dedicated industry and devotion. But whoever is unwilling to set about the task is unfitted by nature for the business of teaching the social studies. No outlines, digests, charts, or methods can take the place of the servitude to study.

After the groundwork has been laid comes continuous study of the living issues which occupy the attention and thought of the contemporary world. What a task! It means reading newspapers (preferably, in many languages), documents, speeches, statutes, executive orders, novels, essays, reviews, and summaries. It means keeping a live file of materials for study, reference, and use in the schoolroom. It means becoming more or less acquainted, by first-

hand contact, with community, state, national, and international affairs, talking with politicians, businessmen, labor leaders, and all sorts of persons active in the world as a going concern.

By the time the teacher has done his preparatory work, he has acquired a certain catholicity of spirit. No one can study assiduously the great classics of human thought, knowledge, and aspiration without widening and deepening his sympathies. But the teacher of the social studies should consciously and deliberately cultivate his sympathies, for it is thru sympathy, not hatred, that we come to know other people best. Some writers call this cultivating the scientific attitude. Altho a battle over words is scarcely profitable, the term "scientific" may be taken too narrowly for the purposes in hand. There are older and simpler (but still difficult) words, such as the cultivation of patience, of a desire to face as many facts in each case as possible, of the judicial temper, and of a willingness to look all around each subject. The teacher, speaking for the whole community and the nation in its world setting, cannot limit his vision to any purely *ex parte* statement of any case presented by special interests. Just as the good judge in a court seeks relevant facts in each case before him, hears opposing witnesses and counsel, and listens with courtesy and patience even to testimony which seems hateful to him, so the good teacher proceeds in study and in classroom operations, exhibiting the judicial spirit and calling upon others to exercise it.

Still another quality is required of the teacher. That is an unfailing interest in the lives, problems, and development of the pupils for whom, indeed, all this instruction and direction and stimulus are designed. Such an interest leads inevitably into concern about the place of the school in modern society and the fulfilment of its functions. Scholarship is indispensable; but it is not enough. If for scholars it may be an end in itself, for teachers it is an instrument to be wielded with reference to the needs of individuals and conceptions of the social order in which their rights are to be protected and their obligations discharged.

It is difficult for the teacher to have great knowledge, power, humility, and humanity. The point is conceded. Perhaps, in strict truth, there has been only one Christian in the world. Certainly there has been no perfect teacher in the world. But unless we have some ideal before us, where are health and guidance to be sought? As Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes was fond of saying, we shoot our arrows toward the sun, tho they fall flaming to earth. Or, as Heine once put the argument, we keep on seeking, until a handful of earth stops us at last. How can it be otherwise unless we sink down into the routine of bees and ants or the sloth of the hibernating bear?

CHAPTER V

STATUS AND TRENDS OF THE CURRICULUM IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

WHAT ARE SOME OF THE TYPICAL PRACTISES with regard to the social studies in elementary and secondary schools? At which grade levels are the various topics placed? What topics or courses have received increased attention in recent years? It is in the general area suggested by these questions that the present chapter supplies evidence obtained primarily by questionnaires.

The Status of the Social Studies in Elementary and Secondary Schools

Procedures and Schools Represented

Two similar forms of a two-page questionnaire were used, one for elementary schools and one for high schools. The data presented in the chapter indicate clearly the nature and the scope of the inquiries.

According to the *Educational Directory* of the federal Office of Education, there are approximately 3300 city school systems and 3600 county and district systems. For the purpose of distributing the questionnaire blanks, a random selection was taken of 50 percent of the cities over 5,000 in population; of 40 percent of the cities between 2,500 and 5,000 in population; and of 15 percent of the county and district systems. Packages containing questionnaire blanks and instructions for their distribution were then mailed in December 1934 to the superintendents of the selected school systems. Superintendents were asked to hand the blanks to principals of "representative elementary and secondary schools" within their school systems. Envelopes were included for principals to mail their replies direct to the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum of the Department of Superintendence. In all, about 9500 blanks were placed in the hands of superintendents but judging from the unused replies a number, perhaps 500, were never given to principals.

Blanks were returned to the total of 2422 of which number 1998 were usable for tabulations. Of those omitted some were received too late and others were defective or incomplete. The replies from county and district school systems were not tabulated as they were relatively few in number.

The distribution of the usable replies by types is as follows: six-year elementary schools, 849; eight-year elementary schools, 342; junior high schools, 234; junior-senior high schools, 173; four-year high schools, 274; and three-year senior high schools, 126. The representation of different

types of schools makes possible a comparison of curriculums in the social studies as affected by the types of organization.

Some description of the schools by size of enrolment and population of cities is afforded in Table 1, which reports evidence for all schools that supplied information concerning the numbers of pupils enrolled. The procedure in tabulation classified the schools into three enrolment groups and, except for schools of enrolments of over 1,500 in cities of 2,500 to 10,000, a generous representation of cities of different populations is seen for each enrolment group. Actually, the enrolment of schools ranges from fewer than one hundred pupils to more than three thousand pupils.

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION BY ENROLMENT AND BY POPULATION OF CITIES OF LOCATION OF 1778 SCHOOLS REPRESENTED IN THE INQUIRY

Number of pupils	Population of city			
	2,500 to 10,000	10,000 to 100,000	Over 100,000	All
500 or fewer	466	369	43	878
501 to 1,500	153	368	230	751
Over 1,500	...	80	69	149
Totals	619	817	342	1778

In planning the investigation it was hoped that an adequate representation would be secured to permit comparisons of the offering in the different types of schools and school organization within enrolment and population groups like those used in Table 1. Also, it was hoped that such a comparison might be extended to less frequent types of schools, such as seven-year elementary schools, two-year junior high schools, comprehensive high schools, commercial high schools, and the like. However, this aspect of the project was abandoned largely because of the small numbers of schools representing many of these groups, but also in part because of the limitations of space for this report.

The Status in Six-Year Elementary Schools

The offering by grades—The questionnaire to elementary schools listed certain phases of content or courses in the social studies with the request that the grade be indicated for such as were being offered. Space was provided for the insertion by the respondents of other phases or courses. No effort was made beyond what may be indicated by titles to ascertain the detailed nature of the content of phases and courses. Computation brought the results to be found in Table 2, which contains the frequencies for all phases or courses reported for any one grade for at least 1 percent of the

849 schools. The first twelve items are those listed in the questionnaire, while the remaining items are phases or courses added by the respondents.

Most of the import of the distributions is so apparent as to make it undesirable to interpret the table at length, and illustrative interpretation should suffice for present purposes. Certain of the phases or courses are found with something approaching equal frequency in all grades, for example, community life, community civics, citizenship, general social science, social problems, and American heroes and holidays. For those of greater frequency this means that the phases are to be found in two or more grades of many schools. On the other hand, certain phases are to be found largely in the higher grades of the six-year school, for example, American or United States history, state history, state geography, and world geography.

Among phases and courses offered less often than in 1 percent of these schools, and not listed in Table 2, are European backgrounds of American history, modern European history, world history, city history, local history, primitive life, home geography, home life in other lands, and customs in other lands.

On the basis of greater frequencies as reported in Table 2, the dominant offerings in six-year elementary schools are: kindergarten—community

TABLE 2.—FREQUENCY OF APPEARANCE OF CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN EACH GRADE OF 849 SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Phase or course	Grade						
	Kgn.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1. Community life	153	374	391	367	252	215	198
2. Community civics	71	180	200	231	242	249	247
3. Citizenship	192	434	447	472	507	503	470
4. General social science	56	159	179	220	213	213	211
5. Social problems	58	132	130	147	157	176	185
6. American or United States history	7	35	40	93	308	507	311
7. American heroes and holidays	129	331	358	411	423	411	331
8. State history	4	18	17	69	199	171	165
9. Current events	52	156	217	316	441	504	511
10. American geography	3	17	21	103	254	520	201
11. State geography	2	13	14	67	200	272	151
12. World geography	3	21	30	138	405	260	405
*13. Ancient history	...	...	...	...	6	3	16
*14. Ancient and medieval history	...	...	...	...	4	4	17
*15. Modern European history	...	...	...	...	2	2	34
*16. Social studies	5	8	10	10	8	8	9

Read table thus: 153 of the 849 schools report community life as a phase or course in the kindergarten.
*Added by respondents to the phases or courses listed in the questionnaire.

life, citizenship, and American heroes and holidays; Grade I—same; Grade II—same; Grade III—same; Grade IV—citizenship, American heroes and holidays, and current events; Grade V—citizenship, American heroes and holidays, current events, and American geography; Grade VI—citizenship, current events, and world geography.

In combination or as separate courses—Special inquiry disclosed that some of the phases offered are taught predominantly in combination with other school activities, while other phases are taught predominantly as separate courses. The evidence on this aspect of organization is presented in Table 3, but only for courses offered in at least 10 percent of the schools in some one grade. Phases much more often taught in combination than as separate courses are community life, community civics, general social science, American heroes and holidays, current events, citizenship, and social problems. Phases much more often taught as separate courses are American history, American geography, and world geography. Only state geography is reported to be taught with about equal frequency in combination and separately.

It is probably needless to mention that general social science can hardly be a phase taught in combination with other phases in a course or even a

TABLE 3.—FREQUENCIES OF APPEARANCE WITH WHICH CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES WERE REPORTED AS TAUGHT IN COMBINATION OR AS SEPARATE COURSES IN 849 SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND PERCENTAGES WHICH THESE FREQUENCIES ARE OF THE TOTAL NUMBERS OF TIMES THE PHASES OR COURSES WERE REPORTED

Phase or course	In combination		As separate course	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1. Community life	1678	84.9	299	15.1
2. Community civics	1241	88.8	156	11.2
3. Citizenship	2555	84.7	463	15.3
4. Social problems	931	90.0	103	10.0
5. General social science	838	63.2	488	36.8
6. American or United States history	396	30.2	915	69.8
7. American heroes and holidays	2014	82.7	422	17.3
8. State history	399	60.5	261	39.5
9. Current events	1619	72.7	607	27.3
10. American geography	323	28.7	803	71.3
11. State geography	361	49.9	362	50.1
12. World geography	389	31.1	861	68.9

Read table thus: Community life was reported as being taught as a phase in combination 1678 times and as a separate course 299 times. The number of times it was reported in combination is 84.9 percent of the total number of times it was reported.

separate course in the sense of a specialistic course in some phase of the social field. The reason for including it in such a list is obviously that of finding the relative frequency with which the fusion type of offering is provided, and the percentages reported for it in this particular table are less significant than for the other phases.

If interpretation of Table 3 is joined with the statement indicating the dominant offerings grade by grade made in the last paragraph of the section above on the offering by grades, it will be seen that in the grades from the kindergarten thru the fourth the prevailing offerings are phases in combination and that an offering of separate courses does not emerge as predominant until in Grade V.

Time allotments—Reports from the schools on numbers of weeks, periods, and minutes per period allotted to the phases or courses were reduced to total minutes per school year in any one grade. After computation of the allotments in this way they were distributed to three groups with results as shown in Table 4. In interpreting the percentages it will be helpful to bear in mind that a total allotment of 2400 minutes or less means less than 15 minutes per day for the normal school year, that 2401 to 7200 minutes is the equivalent of about 15 minutes up to about 40 minutes, and more than 7200 minutes per year is beyond 40 minutes per day thruout the year.

Table 4, which lists phases and courses only found in at least 10 percent of some one grade in the schools, finds predominantly in the group of

TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION FOR 849 SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF THE AMOUNTS OF TIME ALLOTTED TO CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Phase or course	Minutes per school year		
	2400 or less	2401 to 7200	More than 7200
1. Community life	44.7	37.3	18.0
2. Community civics	61.9	20.9	17.2
3. Citizenship	72.8	17.3	9.9
4. Social problems	60.4	23.2	16.4
5. General social science	27.1	40.9	32.0
6. American or United States history	21.3	64.9	13.8
7. American heroes and holidays	59.1	24.0	16.9
8. State history	56.0	31.8	12.2
9. Current events	77.4	15.0	7.6
10. American geography	12.7	62.4	24.9
11. State geography	57.4	28.9	13.8
12. World geography	16.3	57.9	25.9

Read table thus: Of the schools reporting the amount of time allotted to community life 44.7 percent reported 2400 minutes or less, 37.3 percent reported 2401 to 7200 minutes, and 18.0 percent reported more than 7200 minutes.

smallest time allotments community life, community civics, citizenship, social problems, American heroes and holidays, state history, current events, and state geography. It finds general social science, American or United States history, American geography, and world geography predominantly in the middle group in time allotment. For the most part this evidence is in harmony with that just reported concerning these phases as taught in combination with other school activities or as separate courses.

The Status in Eight-Year Elementary Schools

The offering by grades—The phases or courses reported for eight-year elementary schools are listed in Table 5, together with the numbers of

TABLE 5.—FREQUENCY OF APPEARANCE OF CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN EACH GRADE OF 342 EIGHT-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Phase or course	Grade								
	Kgn.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1. Community life	39	136	131	121	77	68	61	30	5
2. Community civics	15	45	46	55	66	73	65	65	61
3. Elementary civics	...	...	...	...	...	2	6	33	43
4. Advanced civics or government	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	9
5. Citizenship	45	129	135	149	165	169	174	129	81
6. Vocational civics	...	...	...	...	...	1	2	4	8
7. General social science	17	54	62	61	61	56	54	40	26
8. Social problems	13	29	29	31	33	37	41	32	24
9. American or United States history	1	8	8	18	105	216	127	209	141
10. American heroes and holidays	43	120	133	154	174	159	112	51	22
11. American history and civics	...	1	1	1	6	7	13	75	84
12. State history	1	4	4	13	61	72	84	39	37
13. Ancient history	...	...	...	2	7	2	22	10	2
14. Ancient and medieval history	...	...	...	...	...	...	29	19	2
15. Medieval history	...	...	...	...	1	...	8	3	2
16. Medieval and modern history	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	1	1
17. World history or civilization	...	...	1	1	1	1	10	13	12
18. Industrial history	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	10	10
19. Current events	22	72	85	112	148	173	191	181	134
20. Geography	...	1	2	6	14	20	75	198	99
21. American geography	1	6	7	30	110	209	103	22	9
22. World geography	1	4	8	42	160	109	132	45	19
23. State geography	1	3	3	14	44	83	49	17	10
*24. Civics	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	4	4
*25. Conservation	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7
*26. European or Old World backgrounds	...	...	...	...	2	3	23	7	1
*27. Local history	...	...	...	...	1	4	1	1	1
*28. People of other lands	...	...	...	1	4	...	...	...	...
*29. European geography	...	...	...	...	...	1	4	...	...
*30. Social studies	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	4	5

Read table thus: 39 of 342 schools report community life as a phase or course in the kindergarten.
*Added by respondents to the phases or courses listed in the questionnaire.

schools in which each is offered in each grade. The first twenty-three phases or courses were listed in the questionnaire and the remainder were added by respondents in supplying information concerning practises in the schools. Phases or courses not found in the list for six-year elementary schools as presented in Table 2 and found offered with considerable frequency in eight-year schools are vocational civics, American history and civics, world history or civilization, industrial history, elementary civics, geography, and European or Old World backgrounds. Except for the last item these additions are offered predominantly in Grades VII and VIII, which are not represented in six-year elementary schools. Other differences between the offerings in the two groups of elementary schools will be brought out in a later section of the chapter.

Among phases or courses offered less often than in 1 percent of the schools are vocational guidance, social relations, home history, psychology, world heroes, and primitive man.

On the basis of greater frequencies as reported in Table 5, the dominant offerings in eight-year elementary schools are: kindergarten—community life, citizenship, and American heroes and holidays; Grade I—same; Grade II—same; Grade III—same; Grade IV—citizenship, American

TABLE 6.—FREQUENCIES OF APPEARANCE WITH WHICH CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES WERE REPORTED AS TAUGHT IN COMBINATION OR AS SEPARATE COURSES IN 342 EIGHT-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND PERCENTAGES WHICH THESE FREQUENCIES ARE OF THE TOTAL NUMBERS OF TIMES THE PHASES OR COURSES WERE REPORTED

Phase or course	In combination		As separate course	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1. Community life	559	81.8	124	18.2
2. Community civics	340	83.3	68	16.7
3. Citizenship	847	87.0	127	13.0
4. Social problems	223	93.7	15	6.3
5. General social science	272	67.9	129	32.1
6. American or United States history	115	22.0	407	78.0
7. American heroes and holidays	776	80.5	188	19.5
8. State history	130	52.6	117	47.4
9. Current events	663	74.2	231	25.8
10. American geography	92	19.2	387	80.8
11. State geography	77	36.3	135	63.7
12. World geography	84	18.5	369	81.5

Read table thus: Community life was reported as being taught as a phase in combination 559 times and as a separate course 124 times. The number of times it was reported in combination is 81.8 percent of the total number of times it was reported.

heroes and holidays, current events, and world geography; Grade V—citizenship, American or United States history, current events, and American geography; Grade VI—citizenship, current events, and world geography; Grade VII—American or United States history, current events, and geography; Grade VIII—current events and American or United States history.

In combination or as separate courses—The phases offered in at least 10 percent of some one grade which are taught predominantly in combination with other school activities are community life, community civics, general social science, American heroes and holidays, current events, citizenship, and social problems (see Table 6). The phases taught predominantly as separate courses are American or United States history, American geography, and world geography. State history and state geography are taught with approximately equivalent frequency in combination and as separate courses. The situation in this respect is almost identical for six-year and eight-year elementary schools.

If interpretation of Table 6 is joined with the statement indicating the dominant offerings grade by grade made in the last paragraph of the section above on the offering by grades, it will be seen that, as in six-year elementary schools, in the grades from the kindergarten thru the fourth grade the prevailing offerings are phases in combination and that an offering of separate courses does not emerge as predominant until in Grade V.

Time allotments—Evidence concerning time allotments is presented in Table 7. Without attempting to repeat the details in this interpretation, it may be said that the situation is in accord with that shown for six-year schools in Table 4: Phases reported to be taught chiefly in combination (as reported in Table 6) are given smaller allotments of time, and phases taught as separate courses are given greater allotments.

The Status in Junior High Schools

The offerings by grades—At the secondary-school level, inquiry was made concerning courses only and not also phases as was done for the six- and the eight-year elementary schools. The courses reported to be offered in at least 1 percent of some grade of the junior high schools represented in this inquiry, together with the numbers of junior high schools for each grade, are to be found in Table 8. The courses listed in the questionnaire sent to the schools include the first 22 items. The 12 remaining courses are those added by respondents. Interpretation of the distributions yields the following as the dominant offerings for the three-grade period: American or United States history and geography in Grade VII, with somewhat greater frequency for geography; American or United States history or

American history and civics in Grade VIII; one or more courses in civics in Grade IX, the most frequent in order being community civics, vocational civics, citizenship, and elementary civics. Ancient history or ancient and medieval history has some recognition in the offering in Grade IX. Mention should be made of the proportion of respondents reporting general social science. In all probability some of those reporting "social studies" properly belong here. The percentages for community civics, vocational civics, elementary civics, citizenship, general social science, ancient history, and ancient and medieval history in Grade IX would have been somewhat larger than as given in the table if only three-year junior high schools were included in the computation. The presence of a large number of two-year junior high schools reduced these percentages materially.

Courses not already mentioned here, but seen in Table 8 to be offered with considerable frequency, are state history, world history or civiliza-

TABLE 7.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION FOR 342 EIGHT-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF THE AMOUNTS OF TIME ALLOTTED TO CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Phase or course	Minutes per school year		
	2400 or less	2401 to 7200	More than 7200
1. Community life	51.8	33.6	14.6
2. Community civics	56.8	34.1	9.2
3. Elementary civics	60.5	32.5	7.4
4. Citizenship	70.1	23.9	5.9
5. Social problems	65.6	23.7	10.7
6. General social science	40.0	32.9	27.1
7. American or United States history	10.0	70.8	19.2
8. American heroes and holidays	53.6	38.8	7.5
9. American history and civics	13.2	45.3	41.5
10. State history	35.9	55.6	8.5
11. Ancient history	18.6	65.1	16.3
12. Ancient and medieval history	12.5	70.8	16.7
13. World history or civilization	29.7	40.6	29.7
14. Current events	84.2	10.0	5.8
15. Geography	6.3	65.0	28.7
16. American geography	6.2	75.4	18.4
17. World geography	12.0	70.5	17.6
18. State geography	48.3	43.2	8.5
*19. Primitive man	9.3	79.6	11.1

Read table thus: Of the schools reporting the amount of time allotted to community life 51.8 percent reported 2400 minutes or less, 33.6 percent reported 2401 to 7200 minutes, and 14.6 percent reported more than 7200 minutes.

*Added by respondents to the phases or courses listed in the questionnaire.

tion, and current events. Also, certain of the courses previously named as dominant are reported with smaller yet significant frequencies for other grades.

Among courses offered once in some grade of these junior high schools but not in 1 percent, and therefore not to be found in Table 8, are vocations, state civics, problems of modern California, world problems, American civilization, biographical history, local city history, story of human progress, and state geography.

TABLE 8.—DISTRIBUTION FOR 234 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE GRADES IN WHICH CERTAIN SOCIAL STUDIES ARE USUALLY TAKEN

Course	Grade				
	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
1. Community civics	1	7	36	63	3
2. Vocational civics	...	6	13	25	...
3. Elementary civics	...	13	21	14	...
4. Advanced civics or government	...	...	2	8	...
5. Economics	...	...	...	2	...
6. Sociology	...	...	...	3	...
7. Problems of democracy	...	...	2	10	...
8. Citizenship	1	2	16	18	...
9. Social problems	...	3	3	7	1
10. American or United States history	2	99	139	3	...
11. American history and civics	...	24	47	8	...
12. State history	4	9	18	7	...
13. Latin-American history	...	1	2	...	...
14. Ancient history	3	4	7	19	...
15. Ancient and medieval history	5	5	1	16	1
16. Medieval history	...	...	1	4	...
17. Medieval and modern history	...	1	...	2	...
18. World history or civilization	2	4	5	15	1
19. Modern European history	...	1	1	6	1
20. Industrial history	...	6	1	3	...
21. Current events	7	36	48	28	1
22. Geography	18	124	63	1	...
*23. Civics	...	...	2	3	...
*24. Community and vocational civics	...	...	...	3	...
*25. General social science	...	12	14	7	...
*26. Economic civics	...	...	...	4	...
*27. Economic citizenship	...	...	...	3	...
*28. Social science	...	2	3	...	...
*29. Social studies	1	13	9	5	...
*30. European or Old World backgrounds		3	...	...	...
*31. European history	...	...	...	2	...
*32. Story of nations	...	...	...	2	...
*33. American history and geography	...	2	2	...	...
*34. Commercial geography	...	...	...	2	...

Read table thus: One of 234 junior high schools reports community civics in Grade VI, 7 in Grade VII, 36 in Grade VIII, 63 in Grade IX, and 3 in Grade X.

*Added by respondents to the courses listed in the questionnaire.

Time allotments—The distributions of the courses to the three groups according to time allotment per school year are shown in Table 9. The distributions are much more predominantly in the middle and highest time allotment groups than are the distributions for elementary schools, reflecting the facts that periods are longer and that only courses (and not phases merely) are represented. The sole exceptions are citizenship and current events. At least half the courses listed in the table are full-year courses involving the equivalent of not less than a period of 40 minutes daily thruout the school year. Certain other courses appear to be more frequently the equivalent, when measured in this way, of half-year courses.

TABLE 9.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION FOR 234 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE AMOUNTS OF TIME ALLOTTED TO CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Course	Minutes per school year		
	2400 or less	2401 to 7200	More than 7200
1. Community civics	13.9	53.7	32.4
2. Vocational civics	26.2	57.1	16.7
3. Elementary civics	15.9	54.5	29.5
4. Citizenship	72.5	15.0	12.5
5. American or United States history	4.3	39.6	56.1
6. American history and civics	7.7	29.5	62.9
7. State history	35.3	50.0	14.7
8. Ancient history	0.0	25.0	75.0
9. Ancient and medieval history	7.1	35.7	57.2
10. World history or civilization	7.7	30.8	61.5
11. Current events	77.5	17.1	5.4
12. Geography	7.3	49.2	43.5
*13. General social science	3.0	6.0	90.9
*14. Social studies	0.0	4.0	96.0

Read table thus: Of the schools reporting the amount of time allotted to community civics 13.9 percent reported 2400 minutes or less, 53.7 percent reported 2401 to 7200 minutes, and 32.4 percent reported more than 7200 minutes.
*Added by respondents to the courses listed in the questionnaire.

The Status in Junior-Senior High Schools

The offering by grades—The courses reported as being offered in at least 1 percent of some grade in junior-senior high schools are listed in Table 10, together with the number of schools reporting them for each grade. The first 22 titles are those listed in the questionnaires, while the remaining titles were added by respondents. The table contains so much detail as to make it inadvisable to undertake complete interpretation here. Perhaps the fact of greatest significance resides in the sequence of courses predominant in the successive grades included in the six-year period repre-

sented. This sequence for the first five grades is as follows: geography in Grade VII; American or United States history, or American history and civics in Grade VIII; community civics and vocational civics in Grade IX; world history or civilization in Grade X; American or United States his-

TABLE 10.—DISTRIBUTION FOR 173 JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE GRADES IN WHICH CERTAIN SOCIAL STUDIES ARE USUALLY TAKEN

Course	Grade						
	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
1. Ancient history	..	1	5	23	12	2	3
2. Ancient and medieval history	..	1	..	11	16	1	2
3. Medieval history	..	..	..	4	1	..	..
4. Medieval and modern history	..	1	1	4	18	7	1
5. Modern European history	..	2	2	1	34	20	2
6. World history or civilization	..	4	1	19	80	8	2
7. English history	..	..	..	..	3	2	3
8. State history	2	7	10	4	3	1	1
9. American or United States history	1	24	43	4	7	86	46
10. American history and civics	..	13	36	..	1	23	34
11. Industrial history	..	..	..	1	2	1	..
12. Current events	..	8	11	9	9	7	7
13. Advanced civics or government	..	..	..	5	3	14	31
14. Elementary civics	..	6	22	16	1	..	..
15. Community civics	1	5	23	45	..	..	..
16. Vocational civics	..	..	8	34	..	..	1
17. Citizenship	..	3	3	13	..	..	1
18. Social problems	..	1	1	..	1	8	14
19. Sociology	..	..	..	..	1	21	34
20. Economics	..	..	..	..	3	40	77
21. Problems of democracy	..	..	..	3	..	7	53
22. Geography	2	67	25	5	11	3	5
*23. European history	..	..	..	3	2	..	..
*24. European or Old World backgrounds	..	4	..	..	..	..	..
*25. Early European backgrounds	..	2	..	..	..	..	..
*26. Eighth-grade history	..	..	3	..	..	..	..
*27. American history and geography	1	2	2	..	..	..	..
*28. Civics	..	..	..	6	..	4	2
*29. American government	..	..	..	..	..	1	2
*30. International relations	..	..	..	1	..	3	..
*31. Economic citizenship	..	..	..	5	..	..	..
*32. Vocations	..	..	..	3	1	..	2
*33. Socio-economics	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
*34. Social science	..	9	8	7	1	..	1
*35. Social studies	..	6	8	4	1	..	..
*36. Business law	..	..	..	..	..	2	2
*37. Commercial geography	..	1	1	1	5	5	..
*38. Economic geography	..	..	..	..	6	6	2
*39. Elementary geography	..	2	..	..	..	..	..

Read table thus: No school of 173 junior-senior high schools offers ancient history in Grade VI; one school offers it in Grade VII, etc.

*Added by respondents to the courses listed in the questionnaire.

tory in Grade XI. Predominance is less apparent in Grade XII, the order of frequency for the six courses with highest percentages being economics, problems of democracy, American or United States history, American history and civics, sociology, and advanced civics or government.

Courses not already mentioned here, but seen in Table 10 to be offered with considerable frequency, are elementary civics, ancient history, and modern European history. Also some of the courses previously named as dominant in certain grades are also reported by smaller, yet significant, numbers of schools in other grades.

Among courses offered in fewer than 1 percent of any one of the six grades represented, and therefore not listed in Table 10, are international relations, socio-economics, economic community, Constitution, social psychology, and Pacific-rim history.

Time allotments—The distributions according to minutes per school year of such courses as are offered in at least 10 percent of any grade in these junior-senior high schools are reported in Table 11. Courses pre-

TABLE 11.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION FOR 173 JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE AMOUNTS OF TIME ALLOTTED TO CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Course	Minutes per school year		
	2400 or less	2401 to 7200	More than 7200
1. Ancient history	14.9	23.4	61.7
2. Ancient and medieval history	20.0	13.3	66.7
3. Medieval and modern history	19.4	3.2	77.4
4. Modern European history	14.8	6.6	78.7
5. World history or civilization	13.9	7.0	79.1
6. State history	17.9	53.6	28.6
7. American or United States history	12.6	16.4	71.0
8. American history and civics	10.7	17.5	71.8
9. Current events	83.7	14.0	2.3
10. Advanced civics or government	16.7	64.6	18.8
11. Elementary civics	18.2	52.3	29.5
12. Community civics	12.9	55.7	31.4
13. Vocational civics	9.5	83.3	7.1
14. Citizenship	15.0	45.0	40.0
15. Social problems	17.4	43.5	39.1
16. Sociology	11.3	67.9	20.8
17. Economics	11.3	67.0	21.7
18. Problems of democracy	7.9	25.4	66.7
19. Geography	12.7	39.8	47.4
*20. Social science	12.5	20.8	66.7
*21. Social studies	0.0	26.3	73.7

Read table thus: Of the schools reporting the amount of time allotted to ancient history 14.9 percent reported 2400 minutes or less, 23.4 percent reported 2401 to 7200 minutes, and 61.7 percent reported more than 7200 minutes.

*Added by respondents to the courses listed in the questionnaire.

dominantly given full-year allotments are ancient history, ancient and medieval history, medieval and modern history, world history or civilization, American or United States history, American history and civics, problems of democracy, social science, and social studies. The only one of all remaining courses falling below the middle group in the table, which includes predominantly half-year courses, is current events.

The Status in Four-Year High Schools

The offering by grades—The courses offered in four-year high schools are reported in Table 12, together with the frequency with which they are reported for each grade. The first 21 titles are those included in the ques-

TABLE 12.—DISTRIBUTION FOR 274 FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE GRADES IN WHICH CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE USUALLY TAKEN

Course	Grade				
	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
1. Ancient history	18	67	29	6	4
2. Ancient and medieval history	3	24	30	...	...
3. Medieval history	3	8	9	7	1
4. Medieval and modern history	...	13	33	14	3
5. Modern European history	...	10	67	54	4
6. World history or civilization	1	30	93	12	3
7. English history	...	3	8	12	6
8. State history	1	6	3	4	2
9. American or United States history	...	1	21	127	81
10. American history and civics	...	1	3	30	51
11. Current events	1	11	14	13	12
12. Advanced civics or government	1	1	8	39	48
13. Elementary civics	5	26	4	...	...
14. Community civics	6	83	7	4	3
15. Vocational civics	4	35	...	2	1
16. Citizenship	2	27	5	4	2
17. Social problems	1	3	6	11	27
18. Sociology	...	1	1	29	45
19. Economics	...	2	9	68	127
20. Problems of democracy	...	2	1	17	87
21. Geography	1	10	30	17	9
*22. Early European history	...	3	2	...	...
*23. Civics	...	3	1	4	5
*24. American government	...	...	...	2	3
*25. International relations	...	...	...	3	9
*26. Social science	...	4	...	...	1
*27. Business law	...	...	1	2	4
*28. Commercial geography	...	1	20	7	5
*29. Economic geography	...	1	6	4	2

Read table thus: 18 of 274 schools offer ancient history in Grade VIII; 67 offer it in Grade IX; 29 in Grade X; 6 in Grade XI; and 4 in Grade XII.

*Added by respondents to the courses listed in the questionnaire.

tionnaire and the remainder were added by respondents. The sequence of courses predominant in the first three grades of the four-year high school is as follows: community civics in Grade IX; world history or civilization (with modern European history not far behind) in Grade X; American or United States history in Grade XI. As in the junior-senior high school, several courses vie with each other for predominance in Grade XII; these are, in order of frequency, economics, problems of democracy, American or United States history, American history and civics, advanced civics or government, and sociology.

Courses not already mentioned here, but seen in Table 12 to be offered with considerable frequency, are ancient history, ancient and medieval history, medieval and modern history, current events, elementary civics, vocational civics, social problems, geography, and commercial geography. Also, some of the courses previously named as dominant in certain grades are also reported by smaller, yet significant, numbers of schools in other grades.

TABLE 13.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION FOR 274 FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE AMOUNTS OF TIME ALLOTTED TO CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Course	Minutes per school year		
	2400 or less	2401 to 7200	More than 7200
1. Ancient history	15.2	23.2	61.6
2. Ancient and medieval history	7.3	9.1	83.6
3. Medieval history	10.7	32.1	57.1
4. Medieval and modern history	17.3	19.2	63.5
5. Modern European history	10.8	10.0	79.2
6. World history or civilization	9.5	12.4	78.1
7. English history	10.7	17.9	71.4
8. American or United States history	9.4	9.0	81.6
9. American history and civics	8.2	9.4	82.4
10. Current events	64.2	7.5	28.3
11. Advanced civics or government	13.4	57.7	28.9
12. Elementary civics	6.1	45.5	48.5
13. Community civics	10.0	49.0	41.0
14. Vocational civics	13.6	68.2	18.2
15. Citizenship	12.8	33.3	53.8
16. Social problems	8.3	56.2	35.4
17. Sociology	8.2	61.6	30.1
18. Economics	10.4	59.2	30.3
19. Problems of democracy	9.7	36.9	53.4
20. Geography	9.5	47.6	42.9
21. Commercial geography	9.4	56.3	34.4

Read table thus: Of the schools reporting the amount of time allotted to ancient history 15.2 percent reported 2400 minutes or less, 23.2 percent reported 2401 to 7200 minutes, and 61.6 percent reported more than 7200 minutes.

Among courses offered less often than in 1 percent of any grade in the four-year high school, and therefore not listed in Table 12, are industrial history, Latin-American history, Hebrew history, Pacific-Northwest history, Pacific-rim history, American government, Constitution, America today, vocations, occupations, and current problems.

Time allotments—The distributions of the courses offered in at least 10 percent of any grade, according to allotments of time, as reported in Table 13, are not notably different from distributions for the same courses reported for junior-senior high schools in Table 11.

The Status in Three-Year Senior High Schools

The offering by grades—The courses reported for three-grade senior high schools, together with the frequency of offering in each grade, are to be

TABLE 14.—DISTRIBUTION FOR 126 THREE-YEAR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE GRADES IN WHICH CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE USUALLY TAKEN

Course	Grade			
	IX	X	XI	XII
1. Ancient history	3	13	4	4
2. Ancient and medieval history	2	17	1	..
3. Medieval history	2	5	..	..
4. Medieval and modern history	2	8	4	..
5. Modern European history	2	30	28	2
6. World history or civilization	4	58	7	2
7. English history	..	1	3	2
8. Industrial history	..	5	..	..
9. State history	2	1	1	2
10. American or United States history	..	7	63	38
11. American history and civics	..	..	17	19
12. Current events	..	6	6	8
13. Advanced civics or government	..	2	19	33
14. Elementary civics	1	2	..	..
15. Community civics	3	4	3	4
16. Citizenship	3	2	..	3
17. Social problems	..	..	4	21
18. Sociology	..	..	7	25
19. Economics	..	2	30	70
20. Problems of democracy	..	4	4	29
21. Geography	..	12	5	4
*22. Current history	..	..	1	3
*23. Civics	1	1	..	3
*24. International relations	..	..	..	2
*25. Business law	..	..	..	2
*26. Commercial geography	..	12	5	1
*27. Economic geography	..	6	3	2
*28. Psychology	..	..	1	6

Read table thus: 3 of 126 schools offer ancient history in Grade IX; 13 offer it in Grade X; 4 in Grade XI; and 4 in Grade XII. Some schools included Grades IX, X, and XI; others, Grades X, XI, and XII.

*Added by respondents to courses listed in the questionnaire.

found in Table 14. As measured by percentage frequency the course predominant in Grade X, the first grade of typical senior high schools, is world history or civilization, with modern European history second. The course predominant in Grade XI is American or United States history. Economics is predominant in Grade XII, but other courses enjoy considerable frequency in this grade—in particular, American or United States history, advanced civics or government, problems of democracy, sociology, and social problems.

Courses not already mentioned here but seen in Table 14 to be offered in smaller, yet significant, numbers of schools are ancient history, ancient and medieval history, American history and civics, geography, and commercial geography. In interpreting the table, sight should not be lost of the fact that some of the courses named as dominantly taken in certain grades are also reported by considerable numbers of schools in other grades.

Among courses reported once and not oftener for any senior high-school grade are vocations, life problems, social civics, international affairs, Latin-American history, and world cultures.

Time allotments—The situation as concerns allotments of time to courses as disclosed in Table 15 is different from that in the junior-senior and four-year high schools chiefly in the disappearance from the distributions

TABLE 15.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION FOR 126 THREE-YEAR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE AMOUNTS OF TIME ALLOTTED TO CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Course	Minutes per school year		
	2400 or less	2401 to 7200	More than 7200
1. Ancient history	12.5	12.5	75.0
2. Ancient and medieval history	5.3	15.8	79.0
3. Medieval and modern history	15.4	30.8	53.8
4. Modern European history	6.6	11.5	82.0
5. World history or civilization	12.2	9.5	78.4
6. American or United States history	10.5	16.2	73.3
7. American history and civics	20.6	14.7	64.7
8. Current events	61.9	23.8	14.3
9. Advanced civics or government	8.0	58.0	34.0
10. Social problems	10.0	45.0	45.0
11. Sociology	13.3	66.7	20.0
12. Economics	9.5	64.2	26.3
13. Problems of democracy	5.7	37.1	57.1
14. Geography	4.8	38.1	57.1
15. Commercial geography	5.6	61.1	33.3

Read table thus: Of the schools reporting the amount of time allotted to ancient history 12.5 percent reported 2400 minutes or less, 12.5 percent reported 2401 to 7200 minutes, and 75.0 percent reported more than 7200 minutes.

of courses found chiefly at the junior high-school level. Facts concerning the courses listed as appearing in at least 10 percent of some grade of the three-year senior high school are not widely different from facts on time allotment presented in Tables 11 and 13.

Other Studies of Status

A number of investigations of the status of the social studies curriculum as well as investigations of the whole curriculum inclusive of the social studies have been previously made and reported. No mention has been made of these studies in the foregoing section because the procedures used in them have differed in various ways from those followed in the inquiry reported here and the evidence reported in them is not directly comparable. The reports of these investigations nevertheless supply a basis for an understanding of the status of the social studies curriculum at the time they were made and it is desirable to refer to them here and to characterize them briefly.

An investigation of history in the intermediate grades has been reported by Lindahl.[1] In the analysis the investigator had access to 57 courses of study for Grades IV, V, and VI in use in cities in various parts of the country. Among the types of evidence reported is the distribution of topics or units recommended for each grade. Glass[2] and Counts,[3] under subventions from the Commonwealth Fund, conducted investigations of the curriculum in junior and senior high-school grades, respectively, in a number of selected school systems and the reports of their inquiries include descriptions of the status of the social studies in these systems ten or more years ago. Wilson and Erb[4] reported the status of the social studies in 301 junior high schools in 13 states, ascertaining among other things the frequency of appearance of specialistic and fusion courses. By the date of the investigation fusion courses had had considerable acceptance at the junior high-school level. Marks[5] compared the offerings and requirements in the social studies in a number of reorganized and un-reorganized secondary schools as found in their programs of studies for 1929-30, 1930-31, or 1931-32. Reports on the status of geography in secondary schools are provided in the Thirty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education on *The Teaching of Geography*.[6] H. Harrison

[1] Lindahl, Hannah M. "History in the Intermediate Grades." *Elementary School Journal* 32: 257-65; December, 1931.

[2] Glass, James M. *Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School and Grades 5 and 6*. Supplementary Educational Monograph, No. 25. Chicago: University of Chicago, November, 1924.

[3] Counts, George S. *The Senior High School Curriculum*. Supplementary Educational Monograph, No. 29. Chicago: University of Chicago, February, 1926.

[4] Wilson, Howard E., and Erb, Bessie P. "A Survey of Social-Studies Courses in 301 Junior High Schools." *School Review* 39: 497-507; September, 1931.

[5] Marks, Florence Pool. "The Social Studies in Grades IX-XII in Reorganized and Un-Reorganized Schools." *School Review* 41: 347-55; May, 1933.

[6] National Society for the Study of Education. *The Teaching of Geography*. Thirty-Second Yearbook. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1933. Chapter 31, p. 539-46.

Russell reported the status in junior high schools of 126 cities. The date of inquiry is not mentioned but was probably 1931 or 1932. The status in 371 senior high schools is reported by Clare Symonds and shows that 70 percent offered geography. A few other recent studies of status are listed by Hockett in the *Review of Educational Research.*[7]

Trends in the Curriculum in the Social Studies

The Earlier Place of the Social Studies

The educational world is fortunate in having at hand two studies of recent publication which present the history of the social studies. One of these is Tryon's *The Social Sciences as School Subjects,* a monograph in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association,[8] which records the development in elementary and secondary schools of all subjects ordinarily regarded as social studies, excepting geography. The story of the origins and development of geography as a school subject had previously been made available in a chapter on "Nineteenth Century Textbooks of Geography" prepared by Brigham and Dodge as the first chapter in the Thirty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.[9] With these reports readily available, it would be gratuitous to recapitulate in this chapter the narratives of growth recorded in them. It is nevertheless appropriate to point out that the present status of the social studies in both elementary and secondary schools represents a striking contrast with the very modest status a century or even a half century ago.

Because the information is not so generally available, it seems desirable to report an interpretation of certain evidence published by the federal Office of Education bearing on trends in the social studies at the high-school level from 1890 to 1928.[10] The evidence relates to enrolments of high-school pupils in the different subjects of study. Interest here centers in enrolments in the social studies. The percentage of all pupils in public high schools enrolled in courses in history rose from 27.3 in 1890 to 38.2 in 1900, and again to 55.0 in 1910. It dropped to 50.7 in 1922 and 46.5 in 1928. The first figures for the non-historical social sciences presented in the table being drawn upon for purposes here are for 1900. For that year 21.7 percent of the pupils are reported as having been enrolled in

[7] Hockett, John. "Curriculum Investigations at the Elementary- and Secondary-School Levels: Social Studies." *Review of Educational Research* 4: 149-56; April, 1934.

[8] Tryon, Rolla M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XI. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935. 541 p.

[9] National Society for the Study of Education, *op. cit.,* p. 3-27. ¶ For a recent treatment of geography as a social science, see: Bowman, Isaiah. *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part V. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. 382 p.

[10] U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1927-1928.* Bulletin, 1929, No. 35. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929. p. 101.

civil government. This percentage dropped to 15.6 by 1910, but the percentage in all non-historical social studies rose to 26.5 in 1922 and 28.8 in 1928. The historical courses represented in the tabulations in 1928 were American, English, ancient, medieval and modern, and world history. The non-historical courses in the same year included civil government, community civics, sociology, economics, and problems of democracy. Unfortunately, comparable evidence for the period since 1928 has not yet been made available.

Trends as Disclosed in the National Survey of Secondary Education

Two monographs of the National Survey of Secondary Education show something of the trends in the social studies, altho not in a form directly comparable with evidence of the present investigation. One of these is the special inquiry into instruction in the social studies reported by Kimmel.[11] The procedure used involved an analysis of recently published courses of study, the assumption in the project being that new courses would reflect innovations in instruction in the field. The chapters of the monograph of most significance for present purposes are the third, fourth, and fifth, dealing, respectively, with "Social Studies Programs in Junior and Senior High Schools," "Analysis of Junior High School Courses," and "Analysis of Senior High School Courses." The other monograph is by Loomis, Lide, and Johnson,[12] and deals with the program of studies. This monograph contains a number of different studies by Loomis and Lide aiming to ascertain trends in the whole program of studies in junior and senior high schools. Some of these investigations involve repetition at a recent date by identical procedures and for identical groups of schools of investigations made at some earlier date. Among these are repetitions of the investigations by Glass and Counts mentioned in the foregoing section on status of the social studies. Another type of study included analyzed the courses taken during their high-school careers by high-school graduates at intervals of ten years from 1890 to 1930. Both types of investigations indicate the increasing prominence in recent years of social studies in secondary-school programs.

Increases in the Offering Since 1930

One item of information requested by the yearbook commission of respondents was the year when phases of content or courses in the social studies were first offered, "if since 1930." From the answers it was possible to compute the percentages which these recent introductions are of

[11] Kimmel, William G. *Instruction in the Social Studies.* National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 21. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. 105 p.

[12] Loomis, A. K.; Lide, Edwin S.; and Johnson, B. Lamar. *The Program of Studies.* National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 19. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. 340 p.

the total numbers of schools offering the phase or course. The percentages may properly be regarded as a type of measure of trends in the social studies curriculum. All percentages in excess of 1 percent are reproduced in Table 16.

TABLE 16.—PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES HAVE BEEN FIRST OFFERED SINCE 1930

Phase or course	Six-year elem.	Eight-year elem.	Junior high	Junior-senior high	Four-year high	Three-year senior high
1. Ancient history	....	2.6	2.1	2.9	1.8	1.6
2. Ancient and medieval history	12.2	2.0	1.3	....	1.1	....
3. Medieval and modern history	....	....	....	....	1.5	....
4. Modern European history	....	....	....	1.2	1.5	4.8
5. World history or civilization	....	4.1	4.3	12.7	9.9	11.9
6. History of nations	....	....	....	....	1.1	....
7. English history	....	....	....	1.2	....	....
8. Early European backgrounds	....	....	....	1.2	....	....
9. American or United States history	15.9	14.9	....	3.5	3.6	4.0
10. American history and civics	....	3.5	3.4	1.2	....	....
11. American heroes and holidays	19.0	21.6	....	....	....	....
12. State history	8.4	6.7	2.6	2.3	1.5	3.2
13. Latin-American history	....	1.2	....	....	....	....
14. Industrial history	....	1.2	....	....	....	....
15. Current events	24.0	28.9	3.8	....	3.6	3.2
16. Civics	....	....	....	1.2	....	....
17. Elementary civics	....	2.3	1.3	2.3	....	....
18. Advanced civics or government	....	....	....	2.9	1.5	4.8
19. American government	....	....	....	1.2	....	....
20. Community civics	13.5	9.4	6.4	1.7	3.6	....
21. Community life	25.3	19.3	....	....	....	....
22. Citizenship	29.4	35.7	5.1	3.5	3.3	1.6
23. Vocational civics	....	....	4.3	2.3	4.4	1.6
24. Vocations	....	....	....	1.2	....	....
25. Occupations	....	....	....	1.7	....	....
26. Economic citizenship	....	....	....	1.2	....	....
27. Economics	....	....	....	5.8	9.9	6.3
28. Problems of democracy	....	....	2.1	5.2	3.3	3.2
29. Sociology	....	....	....	3.5	8.0	3.2
30. Social problems	....	6.4	2.1	....	3.3	3.2
31. World problems	....	....	....	....	....	1.6
32. General social science	24.1	22.5	8.5	....	....	....
33. Social science	....	....	....	4.0	....	....
34. Social studies	3.3	....	5.6	5.2	....	....
35. Psychology	....	....	....	....	....	3.2
36. Geography	....	7.3	4.3	1.7	2.2	....
37. American geography	8.7	9.9	....	....	....	....
38. State geography	8.4	5.6	....	....	....	....
39. World geography	13.3	4.7	4.7	....	....	....
40. Commercial geography	....	....	....	1.2	1.5	2.4
41. Economic geography	....	....	....	2.3	1.5	....

Read table thus: Of the eight-year elementary schools reporting ancient history 2.6 percent reported that it was first offered since 1930.

The phases or courses which have in recent years made greatest gains in six-year elementary schools when measured in this way are, in the declining order of percentages, citizenship, community life, general social science, current events, and American heroes and holidays. In the eight-year elementary school the five highest percentages are for a list identical with that for the six-year school, altho the percentages do not place the courses in the same declining order. In the junior high school the five highest courses are general social science, community civics, social studies, citizenship, and world geography. In the junior-senior high school they are world history or civilization, economics, problems of democracy, vocational civics (if the courses in vocations and occupations are included), and social studies. In the four-year high school the four courses with increments exceeding 4 percent are world history or civilization, economics, sociology, and vocational civics. In the three-year senior high school they are world history or civilization, economics, modern European history, and advanced civics or government.

Two general observations may be made concerning the increments as just noted. The first is that they are larger for elementary schools than for secondary schools. The explanation of this difference may reside in a recent movement to expand the offering in elementary schools, the same movement having influenced the offering in secondary schools at an earlier period. The second observation refers to the greater proportion of large increments for the non-historical phases and courses than for those that are strictly historical.

The reader may secure the support for this observation by noting in Table 16 the numbers of phases or courses with relatively high percentages (for a given group of schools) in (1) the first 15 items (ancient history thru current events) and in (2) the remainder of the list (civics thru economic geography). While making this count he should do so for each group of schools separately, because, as already mentioned, elementary schools appear just now to be expanding their offerings in the social studies more rapidly than are the secondary schools.

A comparison of the offering in schools of different types—(a) elementary grades—The inquiry makes possible a grade-by-grade comparison of the offering at the three levels—elementary, junior high school, and senior high school—for the various types of school organization. This comparison constitutes the concluding section of the chapter and is introduced in reporting on trends to test the hypothesis that changes in curriculum will more often be made in newer types than in older types of schools.

The comparison for the six elementary-school grades (and kindergarten) is made in Table 17, which reports for each grade from the kindergarten

thru the sixth the percentages of six-year elementary schools and of eight-year elementary schools offering each subject reported as frequently as in 10 percent of some one grade in either group of schools. Here again recourse is taken to broader generalization without repetition of details to be found in the table. The major generalization is that six-year elementary schools appear to be doing much more toward enrichment thru additions to the social studies curriculum than are the eight-year schools. This is seen in the larger percentages of the six-year schools reporting many

TABLE 17.—PERCENTAGES OF TWO TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH CERTAIN PHASES OF CONTENT OR COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE OFFERED IN EACH ELEMENTARY GRADE

Phase or course	Type of elementary school	Grade						
		Kgn.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1. Ancient history	6-year	....	....	....	....	0.7	0.4	1.9
	8-year	....	....	....	0.6	2.0	0.6	6.4
2. Ancient and medieval history	6-year	....	....	....	....	0.5	0.5	2.1
	8-year	....	....	....	....	....	....	8.4
3. World history or civilization	6-year	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	8-year	....	....	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	2.9
4. European or Old World backgrounds	6-year	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	8-year	....	....	....	....	0.6	0.9	6.7
5. American or United States history	6-year	0.8	4.1	4.9	10.9	36.2	59.6	36.6
	8-year	0.3	2.3	2.3	5.3	30.7	63.2	37.1
6. American heroes and holidays	6-year	15.2	38.9	42.1	48.4	49.8	48.4	38.9
	8-year	12.6	35.1	38.9	45.0	50.9	46.4	32.7
7. State history	6-year	0.5	2.1	2.0	8.1	23.4	20.1	19.4
	8-year	0.3	1.2	1.2	3.9	17.8	21.1	24.6
8. Current events	6-year	6.1	18.4	25.4	37.2	51.9	59.3	60.1
	8-year	6.4	21.1	24.9	32.7	43.3	50.3	55.8
9. Community civics	6-year	8.4	21.2	23.5	27.2	28.5	29.3	29.1
	8-year	4.4	13.2	13.5	16.1	19.3	21.3	13.2
10. Community life	6-year	18.0	44.0	46.0	43.2	29.6	25.3	23.3
	8-year	11.4	39.8	38.3	35.4	22.5	19.9	17.8
11. Citizenship	6-year	22.6	51.1	52.6	55.5	59.6	59.2	55.3
	8-year	13.2	37.7	39.5	43.7	48.3	49.4	50.9
12. Social problems	6-year	6.8	15.4	15.3	17.3	18.5	20.7	21.8
	8-year	3.9	8.4	8.4	9.1	9.6	10.8	12.0
13. General social science	6-year	6.6	18.7	21.1	25.9	25.1	25.1	24.8
	8-year	5.0	15.8	18.1	17.8	17.8	16.4	15.8
14. Geography	6-year	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	8-year	....	0.3	0.6	1.8	4.1	5.8	21.9
15. American geography	6-year	0.4	2.0	2.5	12.1	29.9	61.2	23.6
	8-year	0.3	0.9	0.9	4.1	12.9	24.3	14.3
16. State geography	6-year	0.2	1.5	1.6	7.9	23.5	32.0	17.8
	8-year	0.3	0.9	0.9	4.1	12.9	24.3	14.3
17. World geography	6-year	0.4	2.5	3.5	16.2	47.6	30.6	47.6
	8-year	0.3	1.2	2.3	12.3	46.8	31.9	38.6

Read table thus: 0.7 percent of six-year elementary schools reported that ancient history is given in Grade IV.

of the phases or courses listed, in particular, current events, community civics, community life, citizenship, social problems, general social science, American geography, and state geography.

The greater enrichment bears out the predictions sometimes made during earlier stages of junior high-school reorganization. It was then contended that removal of the seventh and eighth grades from the traditional elementary school would bring a new focus of attention on the upper grades of the shortened elementary school to the advantage of children in those grades.[18]

(b) Junior high-school grades—The comparison for junior high-school grades involves three types of organization and is made in Table 18. The first type is the traditional one and in the table includes the last two grades of the eight-year elementary school and the first grade of the four-year high school. The second and third types are, respectively, the separate junior high school and the corresponding grades in the junior-senior high school.

TABLE 18.—PERCENTAGES OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE REPORTED AS USUALLY TAKEN IN EACH JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADE

Course	Traditional school			Junior high school			Junior-senior high school		
	Grade			Grade			Grade		
	VII	VIII	IX	VII	VIII	IX	VII	VIII	IX
1. Ancient history	2.9	0.6	24.3	1.7	3.0	8.1	0.6	2.9	13.3
2. Ancient and medieval history	5.6	0.6	8.7	2.1	0.4	6.8	0.6	....	6.4
3. World history or civilization	3.9	3.5	10.9	1.7	2.1	6.4	2.3	0.6	11.0
4. American or United States history	61.1	41.2	0.4	42.3	59.4	1.2	13.9	24.9	2.3
5. American history and civics	22.0	24.6	0.4	10.3	20.1	3.4	7.5	20.8	....
6. State history	11.4	10.8	2.2	3.8	7.7	3.0	4.0	5.8	2.3
7. Current events	52.9	39.2	4.0	15.4	20.5	12.0	4.6	6.4	5.2
8. Community civics	13.2	17.8	30.1	3.0	15.4	26.9	2.9	13.3	26.0
9. Elementary civics	9.6	12.6	9.4	5.6	9.0	6.0	3.5	12.7	9.2
10. Citizenship	37.4	23.7	9.8	0.9	6.8	7.7	1.7	1.7	7.5
11. Social problems	9.4	7.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	3.0	0.6	0.6	....
12. Vocational civics	1.2	2.3	12.2	2.6	5.6	10.7	....	4.6	19.7
13. General social science	11.7	7.6	....	5.1	6.0	3.0	5.2[a]	4.6[a]	4.0[a]
14. Geography	57.9	29.0	3.6	53.0	26.9	0.4	38.7	14.5	2.9

Read table thus: 2.9 percent of traditional schools reported that ancient history is usually taken in Grade VII; 0.6, in Grade VIII; and 24.3, in Grade IX.

[a] Does not include small percentages of schools reporting "social studies," some of which probably refer to courses like those designated as general social science.

[18] As an example of this contention see: Koos, Leonard V. "The Junior High School and the Elementary School." *Educational Review* 62: 309-16; November, 1921.

The differences at this level are for the most part less notable than between the two types of elementary schools, as just reported. Such as they are, they bear out the generalization essayed for the lower school in that the traditional organization tends to reserve more often for Grades VII and VIII some phases or courses taught in the middle grades of reorganized schools. This tendency is reflected in the percentages for state history, current events, community civics, citizenship, and social problems. At the same time the comparisons for Grade IX disclose few notable differences between traditional schools and the two groups of reorganized schools. The most striking difference is for ancient history, which is more often to be found in the traditional school than in reorganized schools.

(c) Senior high-school grades—The evidence of Table 19 seems to show that the offering in senior high-school grades is less affected by the type of school organization than are the offerings in elementary-school and junior high-school grades. The most discernible tendency to difference is that between the three-year senior high school and the two other types. This is a partial tendency in the shorter unit to crowd certain courses into

TABLE 19.—PERCENTAGES OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH CERTAIN COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE REPORTED AS USUALLY TAKEN IN EACH SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADE

Course	Four-year high school			Three-year senior high school			Junior-senior high school		
	Grade			Grade			Grade		
	X	XI	XII	X	XI	XII	X	XI	XII
1. Ancient history	10.5	2.2	1.4	10.3	3.2	3.2	6.9	1.2	1.7
2. Ancient and medieval history	10.9	....	....	13.5	0.8	....	9.2	0.6	1.2
3. Medieval and modern history	12.0	5.1	1.1	6.3	3.2	....	10.4	4.0	0.6
4. Modern European history	24.3	19.6	1.4	23.8	22.2	1.6	19.7	11.6	1.2
5. World history or civilization	33.7	4.3	1.1	46.0	5.6	1.6	46.2	4.6	1.2
6. American or United States history	7.6	46.0	29.3	5.6	50.0	30.2	4.0	49.7	26.6
7. American history and civics	1.1	10.9	18.5	....	13.5	15.1	0.6	13.3	19.7
8. Current events	5.1	4.7	4.3	4.8	4.8	6.3	5.2	4.0	4.0
9. Advanced civics or government	2.9	14.1	17.4	1.6	15.1	26.2	1.7	8.1	17.9
10. Sociology	0.4	10.5	16.3	....	5.6	19.8	0.6	12.1	19.7
11. Social problems	2.2	4.0	9.8	....	3.2	16.7	0.6	4.6	8.1
12. Economics	3.3	24.6	46.0	1.6	23.8	55.6	1.7	23.1	44.5
13. Problems of democracy	0.4	6.2	31.5	3.2	3.2	23.0	....	4.0	30.6
14. Geography	10.9	6.2	3.3	9.5	4.0	3.2	6.4	1.7	2.9
15. Commercial geography[a]	7.3	2.5	1.8	9.5	4.0	0.8	2.9	2.9	....

Read table thus: 10.5 percent of four-year high schools reported that ancient history is usually taken in Grade X; 2.2 percent, in Grade XI; and 1.4 percent, in Grade XII.

[a]Evidence does not include a small percentage of schools offering economic geography, a course probably practically identical with commercial geography.

the last year or the last two grades more than in the four-year and junior-senior schools. The tendency may be noted for American or United States history, advanced civics or government, social problems, and economics. The explanation may be a somewhat greater inflexibility of program arrangements arising out of the shorter school unit.

Recapitulation of Main Findings

The following statements in summary of the evidence in this chapter aim to steer a middle course between repeating all details reported in previous sections and resorting to a few generalizations so broad as to be wanting in specific significance.

(1) On the basis of frequencies with which they are reported, the dominant offerings in six-year elementary schools are: in the kindergarten—community life, citizenship, and American heroes and holidays; in Grade I—same; in Grade II—same; in Grade III—same; in Grade IV—citizenship, American heroes and holidays, and current events; in Grade V—citizenship, American heroes and holidays, current events, and American geography; in Grade VI—citizenship, current events, and world geography. Typically the phases of the offering in the lower grades of these schools are taught in combination, whereas in Grades V and VI they are taught as separate subjects.

(2) On the same basis of frequencies, the dominant offerings in eight-year elementary schools are: in the kindergarten—community life, citizenship, and American heroes and holidays; in Grade I—same; in Grade II—same; in Grade III—same; in Grade IV—citizenship, American heroes and holidays, current events, and world geography; in Grade V—citizenship, American or United States history, current events, and American geography; in Grade VI—citizenship, current events, and world geography; in Grade VII—American or United States history, and geography; in Grade VIII—current events and American or United States history. In these schools, as in the six-year schools, the prevailing offerings from the kindergarten thru Grade IV are phases in combination, and an offering predominantly of separate courses does not emerge until in Grade V and above.

(3) The dominant offerings in the three grades of junior high schools are: in Grade VII—American or United States history and geography; in Grade VIII—American or United States history, or American history and civics; in Grade IX— one or more courses in civics, the most frequent in order being community civics, vocational civics, citizenship, and elementary civics.

(4) The dominant offerings in the first five grades of junior-senior high schools are: in Grade VII—geography; in Grade VIII—American or

United States history, or American history and civics; in Grade IX—community civics and vocational civics; in Grade X—world history or civilization; in Grade XI—American or United States history. Predominance is less apparent in Grade XII, the order of frequency for the six courses with the highest percentage being economics, problems of democracy, American or United States history, American history and civics, sociology, and advanced civics or government.

(5) The dominant offerings in the first three grades of the four-year high school are: in Grade IX—community civics; in Grade X—world history or civilization (with modern European history not far behind); in Grade XI—American or United States history. As in the junior-senior high school, several courses vie with each other for predominance in Grade XII; these are the same courses reported under (4) for junior-senior high schools with almost an identical order of frequency.

(6) The dominant offering in Grade X of three-year senior high schools is world history or civilization, with modern European history second. In Grade XI the predominant course is American or United States history. Economics is predominant in Grade XII, but American or United States history, advanced civics or government, problems of democracy, sociology, and social problems also enjoy considerable frequency.

(7) Time allotments are typically greater for courses in secondary schools than for phases of content or courses in elementary schools, in part doubtless because of the difference in maturity of pupils but also in part because the offerings reported for elementary schools are often phases taught in combination rather than as separate courses.

(8) At the secondary level the offerings are more often the equivalent of full-year than of half-year courses. Among courses listed in (3), (4), (5), and (6) above that appear to be prevailingly less than full-year (probably half-year) courses are community civics, vocational civics, elementary civics, citizenship, economics, sociology, and advanced civics or government.

(9) Observations from the evidence concerning phases or courses first offered since 1930 are chiefly two. One of these is that the increments of the offering are larger for elementary schools than for secondary schools, a difference probably explainable by the recency of the movement to expand the offering in elementary schools. The same movement influenced the secondary schools at an earlier period. The other observation refers to the greater proportion of large increments for non-historical than for historical courses.

(10) The phases or courses which have in recent years made greatest gains in six-year elementary schools are, in the declining order of percentages, citizenship, community life, general social science, current events,

and American heroes and holidays. In the eight-year elementary school the five highest percentages are for an identical list, except that the percentages do not place the courses in the same order. In the junior high school the five highest courses in order are general social science, community civics, social studies, citizenship, and world geography; while in the junior-senior high school they are world history or civilization, economics, problems of democracy, vocational civics (or related courses), and social studies. In four-year high schools the four courses with the largest increments are world history or civilization, economics, sociology, and vocational civics; while in the three-year senior high school they are world history or civilization, economics, modern European history, and advanced civics or government.

(11) Comparison of the offerings in six-year elementary schools with those of the first six grades of the eight-year schools finds that the six-year schools are doing much more toward enrichment thru additions to the social studies curriculum. Comparison at the junior high-school level finds the differences less notable, but it is seen that the traditional organization tends to reserve more often for Grades VII and VIII some phases or courses taught in the middle grades of six-year elementary schools. The most discernible difference among schools giving work at the senior high-school level is a partial tendency in the three-year senior high school to crowd certain courses into the last year or last two years—more so than in junior-senior and four-year high schools.

CHAPTER VI

THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM AS A WHOLE

AT LEAST TWICE in the development or revision of a course in social studies it is essential to view the program as a whole. When the work is first projected, a general pattern must be set up for the course in its entirety; decisions must be made regarding a variety of issues, such as the organization for correlation and the provision for individual differences.[1] Later, when the work is nearly completed, there is need for a critical survey of the entire program to make sure that all major purposes have been served, that adopted standards have been met, that the course is consistent with itself, and that there are no significant gaps or undesirable duplications.[2]

One of the major problems facing the superintendent and his staff is the relation of the social studies to the other areas in the curriculum. This issue has become especially significant in recent years with the advent in every instructional field of units that have clear social implications. Units on transportation appear in art, arithmetic, reading, English, general science, and even spelling. Are the topics of pioneer life, community health problems, housing, clothing, communication, and taxation dealt with solely in the social studies? The answer is no. These themes and many others are found in courses in a wide variety of fields. Except in those rare school systems which have completely integrated curriculums without subjectmatter compartments, the existence of units of the same title in different subjects calls for clear thinking in allocating responsibility to each subject. Furthermore, there is the question of the degree to which fields other than the social studies are to be responsible for developing social attitudes and habits, such as the readiness to abide by the will of the majority, a proper respect for minority views, and an appreciation of the duties as well as the privileges of leadership. The social studies program cannot be considered by itself, cut off from the rest of the curriculum; the optimum relations to other fields must be perceived clearly and sought conscientiously.[3]

A second major question is the problem of the gradation and sequence of experiences to be provided in the social studies. What experiences shall be given first-grade pupils, fourth-grade pupils, twelfth-grade pupils? This problem will be discussed in Chapter VIII.

The present chapter is divided into two main sections. First, ten principles are proposed that may serve as a guide in the evaluation of an existing program or in the development of a new program for a particular

[1] In this connection, consult Chapter IX.
[2] Consult also Chapter XIII.
[3] For a discussion of the nature of the social studies, see Chapter IV.

community. Second, illustrative outlines of entire programs are presented and discussed in the light of the basic principles proposed.

Basic Principles of Curriculum Organization

In the formulation of the principles presented, an attempt has been made to express all major criteria which would be met in greater or less degree by a good social studies program. Obviously, some of these principles will be in conflict with one another, at least in part. But such conflict is characteristic of real problems in life. Rarely, if ever, is there but one criterion in terms of which choice is to be exercised. The man who drives to his office in the morning chooses his speed of travel in the light of many criteria. His desire to get to work upon a pressing matter, his pride in "saving time," his wish to feel the power of his car in action, all impel him to go at a high rate of speed. But counter to these factors are his fear of a fine for speeding and his recognition of the danger of an accident. He weighs all the various factors of which he is conscious and drives at a speed consonant with his best judgment of the total situation. Similarly, the superintendent of schools and his staff need to consider all factors involved in their choice of the social science program as a whole, and to choose the "best" program for the local situation in the light of their judgment of the bearing of the various criteria.

1. Comprehensiveness and Balance

The social studies program should provide for comprehensiveness and balance among the learning situations in order to attain all major objectives.[4] Are the pupils provided with experiences, direct or vicarious, that will promote the attainment of every major purpose of teaching the social studies? Is the distribution of time and emphasis upon these experiences consistent with the relative value of, and difficulty in attaining, the outcomes toward which they are directed? Are there whole areas of social experience that are neglected? If so, what provision can be made for incorporating them in the program? Is primary emphasis placed upon themes of perennial significance rather than those of temporary or local interest?

As an example of a neglected area, consider how children in some communities may go thru their entire school career, taking some social study every year, and yet have no opportunity to learn about the essential elements in satisfying human relationship at the simpler and more intimate levels. The minor—and sometimes major—tragedies of home life where there is constant bickering between the older and the younger child or between the parent and the grandparent give ample evidence of the need for understanding of and control over the technics of living pleasantly and

[4] For a brief summary of truly basic objectives, see page 8.

effectively with others in the home group. If such ability is an important social objective, should not the social studies program make adequate provision for the collection and interpretation of relevant facts?

Other examples of relatively neglected areas[5] in many programs of social studies are direct analysis of the pupil's own social and institutional life; regional surveys and community planning; the study of the social structure of the community; the content of sociology, psychology, and economics, especially in the elementary school; life in Asia, Latin America, and Africa; understanding of the importance of taxation as an economical form of purchase of commodities and services needed by large groups of people; family history or genealogy; experiences designed to increase understanding and acceptance in practise of the historical method; the underlying causes of wars among nations; an appreciation of the ways in which human behavior is influenced thru advertising and other propaganda; the realistic consideration of genuine presentday issues confronting people.

The question of balance is likewise important. Indeed, since absolute comprehensiveness is impossible of achievement, balance is the best available approximation. Every course in geography includes some attention to the distinctive characteristics of racial and national groups. Differences in costume, religion, recreation, and occupation are pointed out. Similarly, practically every course gives consideration to the likenesses among different racial and national groups in order to build an appreciation of the essential humanity of all people. Similarities are shown in their love for their children, their desire for security in old age, and their common friendliness. Nearly every course deals somewhat with both group differences and group similarities, but courses differ greatly in relative emphasis on these two points of view. The person responsible for the course needs to decide upon the relative emphasis to be placed upon each. Similar decisions need to be made in practically every area of the social studies, both within each grade and in the course as a whole.

Not only is it important that the course of study or the textbooks be truly comprehensive and well balanced, but also the actual teaching in the classroom must be similarly comprehensive and balanced. Obviously, this goal is more difficult to insure. It demands a thoro understanding by the teacher of the concepts and purposes which lie behind the course of study.[6] It implies a continuous follow-up by supervisory means to make sure that a balanced program is in effect in the classroom as well as in the course of study.

[5] For other suggestions, see: American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 49-54. ¶ See also Chapter VII of this yearbook.

[6] See particularly Chapter XII, "The Teacher and Classroom Technics."

2. Vertical Articulation

The program should provide for progressive, continuous development thru the school years. That is, the program is unified and continuous from kindergarten thru senior high school, each unit and grade building upon those that precede and contributing to those that follow. Wasteful repetition is avoided but helpful reviews and reenforcement are given upon matters of real consequence. For example, if American history is to be taught in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grades, care must be taken to have these courses properly articulated.

There is no easy way to insure vertical articulation. The obvious procedure is to make certain that the course of study itself is organized in a consistent sequence of experiences for children. Further, the course may properly include suggestions at each stage concerning the previous experiences children have had on which they may now build in the new unit before them. Even more important is it that the teacher be familiar with the program in earlier and later grades, in order that he may relate the new material to that which has gone before and that which will follow. The preparation by teachers of a chart for the entire program may be very helpful in this connection. Piecemeal preparation of the course of study by different committees at different times is most inimical to vertical articulation, and should be condemned and avoided.

3. Horizontal Articulation

The program should provide for proper correlation with the experiences children are having during the other periods of their school day. The social studies constitute but one section, albeit a large section, of the entire school curriculum. As the American Historical Association's Commission puts it, "The program of social science instruction should not be organized as a separate and isolated division of the curriculum but rather should be closely integrated with other activities and subjects so that the entire curriculum of the school may constitute a unified attack upon the complicated problem of life in contemporary society." [7]

An obvious implication of this criterion is that no single course in the social studies can satisfy the needs in all communities, if for no other reason than that no one course can possibly fit well with the multifarious courses in other instructional fields now existing in American communities. Indeed this criterion points clearly to the necessity for each school system to organize its own course in social studies in harmony with the remainder of the school program and with other educative factors in the community.

[7] American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 48.

The urgency of horizontal articulation is especially marked in school systems employing the parallel-subject pattern of organization of the social studies. Chapter IX gives several illustrations of the effect of chance arrangements of topics and issues in courses carried along simultaneously. This is not the place to state whether the literature and history and government and art of England should be studied simultaneously in senior high school, or whether the life of the Vikings, the folk stories, and the geography of the Scandinavian countries should be taught at the same time in the elementary school. Certainly, however, the persons responsible for the social studies in a school system dare not leave these decisions to chance; they should consider the values involved in the alternative proposals [8] and make decisions consciously in the light of all the facts available.

4. Reality of Learning Situations

The program should consist largely of learning situations which resemble as closely as possible the problems met in life. In real life, outside of school, people learn chiefly either as a means of helping them achieve a desired end or as a byproduct of the activity involved in achieving the end. The-man-on-the-street learns about the procedure of amending the state constitution when he wishes to pass or block a particular amendment. In the process of working for or against the amendment he accumulates considerable information about many other matters, such as the conduct of political meetings, the procedure in getting petitions signed, the legal requirements for voting, and so on. For children, many play situations, such as playing store, may have similar reality and similar potentialities for effective learning. The social studies program which is to give young people the power to solve problems in social life is most likely to be successful when it employs genuine problems and issues.

A proper balance between direct and vicarious learning experiences is needed. In the past the work of the schoolroom, in social studies as in other fields, has been devoted all too largely to the provision of vicarious experience to learners. High-school students in a city which had three coal mines within five miles studied about the coal industry *from a book* only; no attempt was made to give a basic experience of the nature of a coal mine or of the discomforts and dangers under which coal miners work; not one in a class of thirty had ever been down a shaft. Thousands of American children studied civics and the art of voting before any school set up the plan of having school children register, study issues and candidates, and finally vote in polling booths upon ballots practically identical with those used by adults. In all probability, most social science programs need to utilize more opportunities for direct experience than they have done in the past.

[8] See Chapter IX, "The Internal Organization of the Social Studies Program."

On the other hand, it must be recognized that direct experience requires much more time than vicarious experience. There are not enough years of schooling to permit children to experience directly all the items of social life which constitute the social heritage. Experiences to be secured directly probably should be limited to truly basic ones. Basic experiences may be considered to be those that open up relatively new fields of interest and appreciation and render understandable further learning in these fields, for example: seeing farm animals, observing a factory in operation, making a genuine group decision, reading an actual document a hundred years old, comparing various observers' reports of the same event, or traveling 300 miles as a basis for a sense of distance.[9]

The law of diminishing returns applies to the question, How much direct experience? The city children who saw for themselves for the first time what a cow looked like, how big she was, what she ate, and where the milk came from, gained a great deal from an hour's time. But to continue with other cows day after day might add relatively little unless special effort is made to develop the relation of cows to butter and cheese production, to farmers' cooperative associations, and to similarly associated ideas. The first factory visited means much, the second of the same type means somewhat less, and so on until the value received becomes small indeed.

In general, an increase in direct experience with things and ideas of social significance seems desirable. But a reasonable balance must be observed. A minimum of basic experiences should be given to which can be tied in a meaningful way considerable vicarious experience and "reading about."

5. Self-integrated Learning

The program should emphasize the organization of learning in and by the child rather than solely in the course of study.[10] Reasoned control of behavior in social fields can come only to the degree that the child makes the ideas of the course his own, re-synthesizes and generalizes from them in relation to his own experience and purposes. In conventional teaching of American history, for example, a host of generalizations and interpretations are presented to the student which he is expected to memorize and recite back to the teacher. Thus he may learn that the Spanish-American War was brought on largely by an incessant and inflammatory barrage of newspaper articles that influenced public opinion to the point where war was inevitable. This interpretation is all too frequently learned and then forgotten as soon as the examination is over. How much more effective would the teaching be if students could themselves have the

[9] See also Chapter XI, "The Utilization of Community Resources."
[10] In this connection consult Chapter III and Chapter IX.

experience of reading some of those old newspapers, of listening to some of the older generation who remember the events leading to the war, of arriving at their own interpretation of what brought on the war! This interpretation could then be checked by comparison with the generalizations made by historical scholars. Would not the student's final interpretation thus reached be more likely to influence his subsequent conduct and thought in similar situations?

6. Adaptation to Maturity of Learner

The program should be adapted to the learner's level of development. An obvious case of the necessity for such adaptation is the use of reading materials, at each stage of the social studies, that are appropriate to the reading skill of the pupil. Many advocate, for example, that very little reading be required in social studies classes until the fourth grade or higher because of the problem of securing materials of appropriate reading difficulty in lower grades. The commonest complaint of teachers in early grades is that the children cannot read the textbook. One possible solution is the use, in addition to the textbook, of appropriate supplementary materials such as pictures and cartoons.

In addition to being adapted to the degree of control of the learner over the tools of learning, the course in social studies should be adapted to the learner's stage of development in power to perceive social relationships. There are many stages of the ability to sense relations and to make generalizations of differing degrees of abstractness and complexity. Children in the lower grades have had basic experiences with both conflict and cooperation between a child and his older brother or sister. They already sense the relationships that exist among people in their home and play groups. They are ready for simple analysis and interpretation of the elements that make for successful living together in intimate groups. They learn early that father is more likely to grant a favor after dinner than before. Yet these same children may not have reached the stage of appreciating the significance to American citizens of the chief crops of Brazil or of the effect of the Rockies on climate. Tests of reading readiness are being used increasingly to discover the appropriate time for introducing a child to reading. Perhaps there is need similarly for measures of readiness to learn about the Westward Movement, or about the characteristics of Egypt and the Egyptians, or about the implications of protective tariffs.

Adaptation to maturity may have another implication. Some abilities develop adequately thru the natural process of maturation. Thus Courtis[11] finds many pairs of words of apparently equal spelling difficulty over

[11] Courtis, S. A. "Maturation as a Factor in Diagnosis." *Educational Diagnosis.* Thirty-Fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1935. p. 169-87.

which the same degree of control is developed in the later grades even tho one word in each pair is taught and the other is not taught. Ideally, in the social studies, we should give but little consideration to those abilities which will be developed to an adequate level by the mere process of maturation.

7. Adaptation to Community Characteristics

The program should take account of distinctive characteristics and needs in the local community. To the degree that communities differ, so should the social studies differ.

Since Chapter XI develops the thesis of utilization of community resources of every type, only a few examples will be mentioned at this point. Port Huron, in which Thomas A. Edison spent his boyhood, may well feature his contributions to the development of electrical and mechanical devices. Battle Creek may well build its units on food around the manufacture of food products in its factories. Pittsburgh may properly use its great steel plants as the approach to the consideration of industrial development. Duluth may organize its work on transportation around the importance of water routes as exemplified by the development of Duluth. Every community needs to capitalize its distinctive characteristics. Yet care must be taken to avoid a too great glorification of the local community.

Even within communities school neighborhoods differ greatly in potential learning experiences. The school near a beautiful natural park can develop a real understanding of the value of parks for recreation and leisure. The school near an art institute can give its pupils richer experiences with artistic creations than can the school far removed from such a resource.

But communities have deficiencies as well as advantages from the point of view of the social studies. In a farming area in Kansas there is little natural opportunity for experiencing and understanding factories and other elements of city life. The social studies in such an area need to make specific provision, thru pictures, movies, books, and trips, for the farm children to gain an appreciation of urban life. Similarly, city children need extra experience with farm life in order to understand the social organism as a whole. The suburb populated by business and professional men may need to give conscious attention to extending children's experience about the conditions of poverty and crowding in congested urban areas. In general, the school has a large share of responsibility for complementing the experiences readily available in order that the social picture as a whole may be seen. Incipient misunderstandings and superficial dislikes must be broken down between city and country, between manual laborer and white-collared worker, between colored and white, between native-born

and foreign-born, between North and South, between rich and poor. The social studies program must take account of the experiences normally available in a community, utilize them to the full for the development of the children, and supplement them to give a well-rounded understanding of social life in all its complexity.

8. Adaptation to Individual Differences

The program should be adapted to the differences among individuals. That children differ greatly in native capacity, in experience, in interests, and purposes is an educational truism that has received much attention in recent years. In every field of instruction, these differences require adjustment in standards to be attained, in materials to be used, in basic experiences to be provided, in rate of learning, in amount of drill, in method of learning—indeed in every aspect or phase of the learning process. The social studies are no exception to the rule.

To some persons, adjustment to individual differences means only modification in the content and method for bright, average, and dull pupils, or for pupils in college preparatory and vocational courses. Such adaptation of standards, materials, and methods seems entirely warranted. Whether in the fourth grade or in the twelfth grade, the instruction of superior pupils needs to differ from that of inferior pupils.[12] In general, dull pupils should develop the true essentials of social living—the ability to get along agreeably and effectively with the people with whom they associate daily; some power as consumers to evaluate the merit of various solutions to vexing social, economic, and governmental problems; some ability to choose among candidates for leadership; some appreciation of the cultural heritage represented by the conventional course in social studies; and so on. Bright pupils need all this and more. They may be expected to acquire also a better knowledge of the factual materials included in the social studies; they require opportunity to develop broad concepts and wide generalizations; they should have some control of the technics of problem-solving; they need to learn the responsibilities and duties of leadership; they should show greater intellectual curiosity and activity. Truly there must be adjustment to differences between groups.

To other persons, adjustment to individual differences entails also a very great adaptation within each group, however homogeneous, to the distinctive needs, interests, purposes, and capacities of the individuals who make up the group. An eighth-grade bright group studying civics may include many interests and backgrounds. The youth from a broken home senses some of the powers of the courts far more than the one from a

[12] For evidence concerning this point, see: Rankin, Paul T. "Pupil Classification and Grouping." *Review of Educational Research* 1: 200-230; June, 1931.

happy, normal home. Are they to be taught precisely the same about the courts? Or take the case of the child whose sister is a public health nurse. Will not the wise teacher make the most of this ready source of information about an important social enterprise? In addition to such adjustments to special experiences, there is always the necessity for adapting both content and method to the varying intellectual levels found in any typical classroom group in social science. Adaptation to individual differences means much more than the provision of X, Y, and Z curriculums.

9. Flexibility

The program should take account of the fact that planning of the experiences to be provided children is possible only to a degree and that opportunity must be given for the consideration of issues and problems that cannot be anticipated. The social studies program may well contain many more units of experience than any one class or individual can use, in order to allow for a large degree of freedom in selection by the teacher in the light of the conditions of the community, the class, or even of his own training and special background. The prescribed portions of the course should not require all the time of the class. Time needs to be available for the utilization of special situations and issues that arise. In general, the desired flexibility may be secured in three ways: the practise of leaving some time unassigned for pressing timely issues; the use of large units within which teacher and pupils select the specific areas for work; and the provision of many units from which an appropriate number can be chosen.

Such flexibility is particularly desirable in order that individual teachers may select and modify in the light of the situation in their particular school and class. It may be that there are special facilities in the local community that should be explored and utilized to the utmost, as is discussed in Chapter XI. The teacher himself has undoubtedly had some distinctive experiences which should be used fully in his teaching. Thus, the class in geography whose teacher has visited the Philippines may well give somewhat more than the usual amount of time to that phase of the subject.

10. Contribution to General Objectives

The program in social studies should contribute to the attainment of the general objectives of the school as well as to those objectives unique to the social studies. The *Cardinal Objectives of Secondary Education,*[13] the recent report on social-economic goals,[14] the *Cardinal Objectives of*

[13] National Education Association, Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 32 p.

[14] National Education Association, Committee on Social-Economic Goals. *Social-Economic Goals for America.* (Report.) Reprinted from the *Journal of the National Education Association* 23: 5-12; January, 1934.

Elementary Education,[15] and the *Goals of Public Education in Michigan*[16] are illustrations of statements of general objectives of education that have been discussed widely. These goals are allocated to no one subject or group of subjects. They are general in the sense that the school program as a whole is designed to achieve them. And yet the school program is but the sum of the various subject programs. If the general goals, such as ability in problem-solving, are to be attained, they must be attained thru activities carried on during the time allotted to the various divisions of the curriculum. The good program in social studies will make its proportionate contribution—a large one—to the achievement of these general goals.

Conclusion

Scientific evidence of validity is needed. Ideally, the best program is the one that has been demonstrated, thru comparison with other programs, to attain the purposes sought most surely and most efficiently. At the present stage of our knowledge, the best program of social studies cannot be determined as readily as the best material for the construction of seat covers in a car. Nevertheless, the evaluation of a given program should be made increasingly on the basis of its demonstrable effects upon the development of children toward the adopted purposes rather than on the basis of armchair philosophizing. Scientific, objective evaluation should be used to the fullest possible extent.[17] Only then should resort be had to "expert" opinion and other approaches to validity.

Illustrative Outlines of Entire Programs

In Chapter IX the possible patterns of organization of the social studies are discussed under three main heads:

(1) Separate subject courses in geography, history, civics, economics, sociology, and social psychology organized and administered independently.

(2) General social studies courses with materials from the different fields of the subject organized and administered in a definite relationship to the subject as a whole.

(3) A correlated or integrated curriculum in which the social studies are organized and administered in a definite relationship to the entire curriculum with or without the preservation of their identity.

Illustrative units or sections of the curriculum are presented in Chapter IX together with discussion of some of the advantages and disadvantages

[15] New York (State) Council of Superintendents, Committee on Elementary Education. *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education.* Second report. Albany, N. Y.: University of the State of New York, October, 1929. 188 p.

[16] Michigan Educational Planning Commission. *Goals of Public Education in Michigan.* Lansing, Mich.: the Commission, 1934. 4 p.

[17] Consult Chapter XIII, "Evaluating the Outcomes of the Social Studies Curriculum."

of each general pattern of organization. The same classification will be used here for the presentation of illustrations of *complete* programs from Grade I thru Grade XII.

The superintendent of schools and his staff are finally responsible for the provision of a sequence of experiences in the social studies that will insure the development of the objectives adopted. They must choose the general pattern that seems to them most likely to aid in attaining these objectives. They must then be sure that the curriculum as a whole is consistent with the basic principles which are adopted, such as those suggested earlier in this chapter.

The outlines given here are presented to show how various general patterns of organization may appear when the entire program is viewed at once. It is obvious that a brief outline and explanation of the entire curriculum in the social studies for a particular state or city cannot do full justice to the program. Lack of space, however, prevents the inclusion of complete courses of study for different type curriculums. Furthermore, the programs of only a limited number of school systems are given.[18]

It should be noted also that the classification proposed does not fit perfectly the illustrations given. The intent of the classification is to suggest three stages in integration from separate subjects thru a unified social science program to an integrated curriculum in which the social studies are not distinguished sharply from the other fields of instruction. Obviously no one program can be so pigeon-holed with complete accuracy. Especially is this true when the entire range from the first grade thru the twelfth grade is considered. For example, Grades I to III and VII to IX may be organized as general social science, and Grades IV to VI and X to XII as separate subjects.

Separate Subjects

The evidence presented in Chapter V and elsewhere indicates that the most common organization of the social studies is a series of separate subjects taught either simultaneously or successively. As was pointed out in Chapter IX, the tendency is to relate these separate subjects closely to each other and to the other areas of the curriculum.

Reading—The course in Reading, Massachusetts, may be given as an illustration of an organization which preserves to a large degree the identity of the separate subjects, altho correlation among them is emphasized.

[18] For descriptions of the social studies program as a whole in the school systems of Denver, Colo.; Des Moines, Iowa; Germantown (Pa.) Friends School; Lincoln School of Teachers College; Pasadena, Calif.; Reading, Mass.; San Antonio, Texas; Tulsa, Okla.; and University of Chicago High School—see: *The Social-Studies Curriculum*, Fourth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1934. 227 p.

The elementary school . . . In the three primary grades the work is taught in a sequence of eight integrated activity units. The basic theory of these units is that of allowing the child to see, experience, and do that which will most intensify and vivify for him the concepts on which the unit is focused. In the activities of the social science units, all other subjects have a part; penmanship, drawing, numbering, reading, and writing become a part of every unit, to the advantage both of social science and of the other subjects.

In Grades IV, V, and VI, the social studies units are arranged in subject divisions, but every effort is made to correlate them as far as possible. In Grade IV the history units are topical rather than chronological, a method of organization likely to influence the American history now in Grade V and the World Backgrounds material now in Grade VI. The geography units are based to a large extent on standard textbooks; the citizenship projects are as yet not clearly formulated.

The junior high school. The junior high-school units follow a single sequence; each unit is focused on a single set of concepts and embodies whatever subjectmatter seems useful in making the concepts real to pupils, but the units are placed largely according to subject classifications. As in the case of the elementary school, the work has been influenced by the writings of H. C. Morrison. The units are constructed by teachers, tried out in classes, and critically considered and revised by the department as a whole. . . .

The senior high school. History is more than "past politics," and its objectives are more than parrot-like memorization of obscure dates and events. The senior high-school history courses are designed not just to prepare a few for the college entrance examinations, but to prepare all for a full, well-rounded citizenship in an ever-changing world. If history is "philosophy teaching by example," the Reading High School courses should equip the student with enough basic material from the record of the past to help him "see life steadily and see it whole." The list of the courses offered seems stereotyped enough, but a process of coordination and synthesis is being worked out whereby these courses will form an integral part of a carefully unified social science curriculum in our school system. It is not only that the courses may be offered, but that the right aims, objectives, and methods may be utilized in their presentation. . . .[19]

THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN READING, MASSACHUSETTS[20]

Grade I.	Grade II.	Grade III.
1. Home Life.	3. Community Life.	5. Seeing America.
2. The Farm.	4. Indian Life.	6. Local and Pioneer History.
		7. Other Folks.
		8. Good Citizens' Club.

[19] Woodbridge, John M., Jr.; Dixon, A. Imrie; and Wadleigh, Verna L. "A Unified, Twelve-Year Curriculum in Social Sciences for Reading, Massachusetts." *The Social Studies Curriculum,* Fourth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1934. p. 200, 201, 203. Junior high-school units were modified in accordance with letter from Superintendent Arthur E. Pierce.

[20] *Ibid.,* p. 196-200.

Grade IV.

History

1. History Hill: an overview of our debt to the past.
2. How Men Have Learned To Farm.
3. Making Goods: the story of tools.
4. Exchanging Goods and Ideas: development of transportation and communication.

Geography

1. The Earth We Live On: an overview of world geography; maps; distance; location.
2. A Wet, Hot Region: the Amazon Basin.
3. The Far North and the Far South.
4. Hot, Dry Lands: the Sahara.
5. Egypt.
6. Africa.
7. Life in Mountain Regions: the Swiss.
8. A Low Temperate Region: Holland.
9. Mediterranean Sea and Lands.
10. Seacoasts.
11. China.
12. Japan.
13. Summary and Review.

Civics

1. Good Citizens' Club (continued).
2. Teamwork and Interdependence.
3. How Men Have Learned To Live Together: a preview of social civics.

Grade V.

History

1. The Search for a New Route to the East, and How the Nations Explored a New World.
2. Why English Peoples Occupied Most of North America.
3. How the English Colonies Came To Separate Themselves from Their Mother Country.
4. How the United States Made Itself Respected among the Nations.
5. How Americans Moved Westward toward the Pacific.
6. How One Machine Has Called for An-

Geography

1. A Trip across Our Country. Latitude and longitude.
2. The Southern States.
3. The Western States.
4. The North Central States.
5. The Northeastern States.
6. Our Island Possessions.
7. Our Northern Neighbors.
8. Our Southern Neighbors.
9. South America.

Civics

(No course as yet outlined.)

Grade V.—Continued

History	*Geography*	*Civics*
other, Changing Our Ways of Living. 7. How the Slavery Question almost Divided the Nation. 8. How the United States Became Really United. 9. How the United States Became a World Power.		

Grade VI.

History	*Geography*	*Civics*
1. The Days before Written Records. 2. Egypt. 3. The Near East. 4. The Greeks. 5. The Romans. 6. The Middle Ages. 7. The Renaissance. 8. The New World. 9. Our Inheritance.	1. Steppes and Deserts: Nomads. 2. Rivers and Oases. 3. Border Lands. 4. The Mediterranean Countries. 5. Great Britain and Ireland. 6. Germany. 7. France, Belgium, and Luxemburg. 8. Holland, Denmark: Level countries. 9. Switzerland and Scandinavia: Mountainous countries. 10. Austria and Czechoslovakia. 11. Yugoslavia, Albania, and Bulgaria. 12. Hungary and Rumania. 13. The New Countries on the Baltic. 14. Russia. 15. China. 16. Japan. 17. India. 18. East Indies. 19. Africa. 20. Australia and the Pacific Islands.	1. Home Duties.

Grade VII. *American History*

1. Introduction: Social Problems and the Social Sciences.
2. An Awakening Old World Discovers a Strange New World.
3. A Struggle for the Red Man's Continent.
4. The Forging of a New Nation.
5. Westward Ho! From Seaboard to Prairie and the Golden Gate.
6. The Rise of Democracy.
7. A Struggle between Sections: Civil War and Brothers' Blood.
8. Years of Turmoil.
9. The Coming of "Big Business" and the End of the American Frontier.
10. America in the Days of Imperialism.
11. World War and Its Aftermath.

Grade VIII. *Geography of the Nations*

12. The United States Today and the Standard of Living: Why should there be any poverty? What things are necessary to a high standard of living, and what parts of the world can have those things?
13. The United States: North Central Section.
14. The United States: Southern Section.
15. The United States: Northeastern Section.
16. The United States: Western Section.
17. Canada and Mexico, Our Nearest Neighbors.
18. Latin-American Countries—Lands of Opportunity.
19. Europe—Land of Hopes and Fears.
20. The British Commonwealth of Nations—on Which the Sun Never Sets.
21. France and Her Empire.
22. Germany, a Great Nation Sorely Tried.
23. Nations of West Central Europe.
24. Nations of Eastern and Northern Europe.
25. Mediterranean Countries.
26. Asia—the Far East, a World of Mystery.
27. Africa—a Pageant of Darkness and Light.

Grade IX. *Introduction to Civics and Modern Social Problems*

28. America Faces the Future—Social Problems and Problem-Solving.
29. Public Leadership—A Serious Social Problem.
30. Changing Civilization and the Community—New Outlooks and Viewpoints on Group Life.
31. Changing Civilization and the Individual—Personality and Mental Health in the Problems of Today.
32. Changing Home and Family Conditions in America, Including a Study of the Housing Problem.
33. Public Education in a Democracy, and the Choosing of One's Occupation.
34. Modern Citizenship.
35. Public Opinion, Propaganda, and the Press.
36. Public Safety: Fire and Accidents.
37. Public Safety: Police, Crime, and the Law.
38. Labor, Industry, and Social Security.
39. National Government.
40. State Government.
41. Local Government—the "Jungle" of American Politics.

42. The National Income—Taxation, Money, and Social Justice.
43. International Relations and Foreign Affairs.
44. The Coming of Tomorrow—Social Progress and the New Day.

Grade X.

Ancient History

1. Oriental Nations.
2. Ancient Hellas.
3. Early Greece.
4. Foreign Wars of the Greeks.
5. Athenian Supremacy.
6. Civil Wars among the Greeks.
7. Alexander's Empire.
8. Early Rome to Supremacy in Italy.
9. Rome Supreme in the Mediterranean.
10. Rome, from Republic to Monarchy.
11. Roman Empire.
12. Breakup of Roman Empire.

World History

1. Why We Study History.
2. What Happened in the Near East from the Pyramids to Marathon.
3. The Millennium of Greece and Palestine from the Time of Homer and David to the Time of Jesus.
4. The Roman Millennium.
5. The Medieval Millennium.
6. The Modern Half-Millennium.

Grade XI. *Modern History*

13. Introduction to Modern History.
14. The Age of Kings and Nobles.
15. The Age of Political Revolution.
16. The Age of Industrial Revolution.

Grade XII. *American History and Problems of Government*

1. The Discovery and Exploration of America.
2. Colonial America.
3. The American Revolution.
4. The Establishment of the National Government.
5. Launching the New Republic.
6. Democracy in the Saddle.
7. "The House Divided Against Itself"—The Slavery Problem.
8. Progress of the Nation to 1860.
9. Civil War and Reconstruction (1860-1876).
10. The Economic Revolution and the Vanishing Frontier.
11. America among the World Powers (1896-1900).
12. The Roosevelt Era and the Progressive Movement.
13. Wilsonian Democracy and the World War.
14. Reconstruction—America since the War.
15. American Government and Its Problems Today.
16. Topical Review of American History and Government.

General Social Studies

A second type of organization is that of general social studies courses in which materials from the various special subject fields are interwoven and used to achieve the general objectives of the social studies with relatively little attention to the logical grouping within each subjectmatter compartment. Such a program of general social studies may be arranged in a variety of ways, including the unit of work procedure and the theme procedure.

Minneapolis—An illustration of a combined theme-unit organization is the program in Minneapolis. A major theme is assigned to each grade and is amplified in the units for the grade. Each unit in the course of study includes the following general features:

1. Overview
2. Relationship ideas involved in the study of the unit
3. References for the teacher
4. Possible ways of arousing interest
5. Suggested subjectmatter
6. Experiences to aid learning
7. References for the pupil.

The general outline of the program is as follows:

THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN MINNEAPOLIS[21]

Primary Grades

Kindergarten—Theme: The Home and the School
First Grade—Theme: The Home and the Neighborhood
Second Grade—Theme: Our City
Third Grade—Theme: The Needs of Our Modern Home (Food, Shelter, and Clothing) Contrasted with Those of the Pioneer or Colonial Home

Intermediate Grades

4B Grade—Theme: Activities of Man Directed by Nature
- I. How people live in a hot, moist country (Congo or Amazon)
- II. How people live in a desert (Arabian or Sahara)
- III. How people live in polar lands (Eskimo)
- IV. Extension units

4A Grade—Theme: Man's Increasing Control over Nature
- I. How people live in a mountainous land (Switzerland)
- II. How people live in Mediterranean lands
- III. How people live in a mountainous country on the seacoast (Norway)
- IV. How people live in a lowland country (Holland)
- V. Extension units

Fifth Grade—Theme: How the People of North America Live

5B Grade—United States
- I. North Central section
- II. Southern section

5A Grade—United States
- III. Western section
- IV. Northeastern section
- V. Possessions of the United States
- VI. Our neighbors, Canada and Mexico

[21] Minneapolis Board of Education. *A Course of Study in Elementary School Social Studies—Fourth Grade.* Minneapolis: the Board, 1934. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent Carroll R. Reed.

6B Grade—Theme: How the People of Europe Live

I. Scandinavian Peninsula and Denmark
II. Germany
III. France
IV. Great Britain
V. Italy
VI. Czechoslovakia

6A Grade—Theme: The United States Began in Europe

I. Our legacy from the Eastern nations
II. How Europe lived before America was discovered
III. Exploration and discovery
IV. The Old World seeking new homes and wealth in the New World thru civilization

Junior High School

Seventh Grade—Theme: Interdependence of Peoples of the World

7B Grade

I. Where the people of the world live
II. Population centers in the agricultural stage
China, India, Russia
III. The most important sparsely settled regions of the world
Mexico and Central America, South America

7A Grade

IV. Regions which have reached a high stage of industrial progress
Northeastern United States, Western Europe, Japan
V. Transportation and communication

Note: In addition to the basic units, there are eleven optional units which may be utilized with individuals and with classes.

Eighth Grade—Theme: The History of the United States in a World Setting

8B Grade

I. How the United States began in Europe (Review of 6A)
II. How the colonies became an independent nation
III. How the United States expanded its territory
IV. How the United States as a union was tested by civil war

8A Grade

V. How the United States progressed economically, politically, and socially
VI. How the United States became a world power
VII. The march of time (history of the past 15 years related to each unit)

Note: In addition to the basic units, there is a series of optional units.

Ninth Grade—Theme: Preparation for Community Life

9B Grade

I. Group living
II. Industrial life

9A Grade

III. Occupational and educational opportunities
IV. Government and citizenship

Note: In addition, a series of optional units is provided.

Senior High School

10B Grade—World History S1	Elective
10A Grade—World History S2	Elective
11B Grade—American History S1	Required
11A Grade—American History S2	Required
Sociology S1	Elective
12B Grade—Civics S1	Required
Sociology S1	Elective
Economics S1	Elective
Commercial Law S1	Elective
12A Grade—Sociology S1	Elective
Economics S1	Elective
Commercial Law S1	Elective

In major outline, the Minneapolis program devotes the kindergarten and first two grades to home and community life, and the third grade to the needs of the home contrasted with those of pioneer homes. Grade IV thru Grade VI-B and Grade VII emphasize geography. The high-sixth and the eighth grades deal primarily with history. The ninth grade emphasizes community and occupational civics. In the senior high school American history is required in the eleventh grade and civics in the low-twelfth grade.

An interesting feature of the Minneapolis course is the provision for optional units which may be used by individuals or classes. Such units give a degree of flexibility that is much to be desired in a course for a large city school system.

Fort Worth—This program, outlined in Table 20, is another illustration of the organization of units around major themes. The following quotation from the course of study in social studies explains how the term "theme" is used in Fort Worth, and the relation of the units to the themes.

> The term "social studies" is used to include those portions of history, geography, civics, economics, sociology, and political science necessary to the attainment of an effective understanding of the basic principles underlying living together in the modern world.
>
> The social studies program is organized into a continuous series of units of understanding. Each unit contributes to an understanding of some aspect of one of the five major themes used as a basis for the program. An understanding of the various aspects of these themes is considered necessary to an intelligent understanding of modern life. These themes are used as guides in the selection of the materials for the units. "They serve as summarizing strands around which the data or materials of the social studies can be woven. The data explain the themes, and the themes give meaning to the data."
>
> *Interdependence Theme.* As man has increased his control over nature, he has increased his interdependence, and his relationships to other men have become more involved. Interdependence is a fact of modern social living, and we find it impossible to think effectively in any realm without an

(Continued on page 114)

TABLE 20.—THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN FORT WORTH [a]

Grade	Unit	Title	Theme	Aspects of theme	Suggested time
Kgn.	1	How the Family Lives and Works. Our Playhouse	Interdependence	Interdependence of the Members of a Family Group	6 weeks
	2	How the Family Lives and Works. Our Store	Interdependence	Interdependence of the Family Group and Other Groups	6 weeks
	3	How the Family Lives and Works. Our City	Interdependence	Interdependence of All Groups in the Community	6 weeks
I	1	How the Community Helps the Family Secure Food, Clothing, and Shelter	Interdependence	Interdependence with Respect to Food, Clothing, and Shelter	10 weeks
	2	How the Community Helps the Family Travel and Carry Goods	Interdependence	Interdependence with Respect to Transportation	8 weeks
	3	How the Community Helps the Family Communicate	Interdependence	Interdependence with Respect to Communication	6 weeks
	4	How the Community Helps the Family Protect Health, Safety, and Property	Interdependence	Interdependence with Respect to Protection	6 weeks
	5	How the Community Helps the Family Play and Enjoy Living	Interdependence	Interdependence with Respect to Recreation	6 weeks
II	1	How the Work of the Community Is Carried On	Interdependence	The Dependence of a Community upon Its Workers and the Interdependence of the Workers Themselves	18 weeks
	2	How the Farm Provides Food for All the People of the World	Interdependence	Interdependence of All the People of the World and Farm Workers	9 weeks
	3	How Man First Learned To Provide Food, Clothing, Shelter, and Tools for Himself	Control over Nature	Beginnings of Control over Nature	9 weeks
III	1	How the North American Indian Moved about To Find a Better Mode of Living	Population	The Tendency of People To Move About without Definite Destination	9 weeks
	2	How Man First Learned To Make Animals Work for Him	Control over Nature	Control over Nature with Respect to Animals	9 weeks
	3	How People Adapt Their Ways of Living to Climatic Conditions, How the Lapps Live, How the Filipinos Live, How the Texans Live	Adaptation	Adaptation to Conditions Resulting from Relations to the Sun	10 weeks

a Fort Worth Board of Education. *Social Studies, A Tentative Course of Study for Grade Eight.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 109. Fort Worth, Texas: the Board, 1933. p. 11–19. Information for Grades IX, X, and XI came from personal letter from J. C. Parker, director of curriculum, research, and guidance.

TABLE 20.—THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN FORT WORTH [a]—Cont.

Grade	Unit	Title	Theme	Aspects of theme	Suggested time
III	4	How the Rest of the World Helps Furnish Our Needs	Interdependence	Interdependence of the Community and the World at Large	8 weeks
IV	1	How Fort Worth Started and How It Became What It Is Today	Interdependence	Interdependence of the Community and the World at Large	6 weeks
	2	How Man First Learned To Cultivate the Soil	Control over Nature	Control over Nature with Respect to the Soil	6 weeks
	3	How Early People Sailed the Seas for Adventure and Trade	Population	The Beginnings of Commerce	6 weeks
	4	How Men Have Learned To Adapt Their Mode of Living To Meet the Conditions Imposed by Environment, Holland and Switzerland	Adaptation	Adaptation To Meet Conditions Imposed by Environment	8 weeks
	5	How We Get Our Clothing	Control over Nature	Control over Nature with Respect to Clothing	6 weeks
	6	How America Tries To Educate All Its People	Progress of Democracy	The Influence of the Democratization of Knowledge upon Democracy	4 weeks
V	1	How European People Began To Travel and Discovered a New World	Population	The Tendency of People To Move about with a Definite Destination	6 weeks
	2	How the American Family Has Become More and More Interdependent since Colonial Times	Interdependence	Increasing Interdependence of the Family and Other Groups	6 weeks
	3	How the Early American People Lived, Worked, and Built up a Nation, an Experiment in Democracy	Progress of Democracy	Beginnings of Political Democracy in the United States	6 weeks
	4	How Environmental Conditions Determine the Industries of People, Fisheries, Mining, and Forestry	Adaptation	Adaptation of Industries to Environmental Conditions	8 weeks
	5	How Man Has Learned To Travel and Transport Goods	Control over Nature	Increased Control over Nature with Respect to Transportation	5 weeks
	6	Our Housing Needs and How We Have Learned To Care for Them	Control over Nature	Increasing Control over Nature with Respect to Shelter	5 weeks

a Fort Worth Board of Education. *Social Studies, A Tentative Course of Study for Grade Eight.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 109. Fort Worth, Texas: the Board, 1933. p. 11–19. Information for Grades IX, X, and XI came from personal letter from J. C. Parker, director of curriculum, research, and guidance.

TABLE 20.—THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN FORT WORTH [a]—Cont.

Grade	Unit	Title	Theme	Aspects of theme	Suggested time
VI	1	How Man Has Learned To Communicate with Others	Control over Nature	Control over Nature with Respect to Communication	6 weeks
	2	Our Food Needs and How They Are Furnished	Control over Nature	Control over Nature with Respect to Food	6 weeks
	3	The Industries of Fort Worth and How They Came To Be Established	Adaptation	Influence of Environment upon Industries	6 weeks
	4	The Migrations of People to Texas and the Establishment of a Frontier Community	Population	The Tendency of People To Move about with Definite Destinations	6 weeks
	5	How Texas Secured Political Independence	Progress of Democracy	The Tendency of People To Demand Democracy	3 weeks
	6	How Texas Became a Part of the United States	Interdependence	Interdependence of Communities and the World at Large	3 weeks
	7	Culture and Education in Texas	Population	Tendency of People To Strive for Better Modes of Living in Non-Materialistic Realms	6 weeks
	8	Texas Trades with the Rest of the World	Interdependence	Interdependence of Texas and the Rest of the World	6 weeks
	9	How People of the World Have Learned To Develop Their Energy Resources and Make Machinery Work for Them	Control over Nature	Control over Nature as a Result of the Application of Scientific Knowledge and Method	6 weeks
	10	Industrialization of the Chief European Countries	Adaptation	Adaptation to Changing Conditions	6 weeks
VII	1	How Successive Migrations of People from Europe Have Influenced the Development of the United States	Population	The Influence of Immigrants upon Their Destination	6 weeks
	2	How the Raising of Cotton in the United States Has Influenced the Development of Democracy	Progress of Democracy	The Striving of Man for Social, Political, and Economic Democracy	6 weeks
	3	Industrialization of the United States	Control over Nature	Increasing Control over Nature with Respect to Industry	6 weeks
	4	Our United Nation	Interdependence	Increasing Interdependence because of National Solidarity	4 weeks

[a] Fort Worth Board of Education. *Social Studies, A Tentative Course of Study for Grade Eight.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 109. Fort Worth, Texas: the Board, 1933. p. 11–19. Information for Grades IX, X, and XI came from personal letter from J. C. Parker, director of curriculum, research, and guidance.

TABLE 20.—THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN FORT WORTH [a]—Cont.

Grade	Unit	Title	Theme	Aspects of theme	Suggested time
VII	5	Industrialization of Asia	Adaptation	Adaptation of Asiatic Peoples to Changing Conditions	4 weeks
	6	Industrialization of Latin America	Adaptation	Adaptation of Latin Americans to Changing Conditions	4 weeks
	7	The Expansion of the Advanced Nations into the Backward Nations	Population	The Tendency of Nations To Extend Their Boundaries	6 weeks
VIII	1	Living Together			9 weeks
	2	Services That Require Cooperative Action and How They Are Provided			9 weeks
	3	The Group Must Be Composed of Working Individuals			9 weeks
	4	Improving Our Lives Together			9 weeks
IX		World History (elective) Ancient History (elective)			36 weeks 36 weeks
X		Modern History (elective) English History (elective)			36 weeks 36 weeks
X or XI		American History (1 required) Civics Economics (elective) Contemporary problems (elective)			36 weeks 36 weeks 18 weeks 18 weeks

[a] Fort Worth Board of Education. *Social Studies, A Tentative Course of Study for Grade Eight.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 109. Fort Worth, Texas: the Board, 1933. p. 11–19. Information for Grades IX, X, and XI came from personal letter from J. C. Parker, director of curriculum, research, and guidance.

(Continued from page 110)

understanding of this fact. The various aspects of interdependence are used as the basis of units from the kindergarten thru grade eleven.

Increasing Control over Nature Theme. A central trend in human history has been that of the ever-increasing control over nature. From a state of complete savagery man has passed thru many stages to that of the present industrial civilization. This has been possible because of an ever-increasing knowledge of the physical world. No trend in human history has had more influence upon present modes of living; consequently it is essential that one understand the process itself and the results thereof.

The Adaptation Theme. Stated more definitely, this theme becomes: the necessity of man's adaptation to meet the requirements of subsistence and the pressure of competing nations and the conditions implicit in change.

There are some aspects of nature that man cannot control; hence he must make the necessary adaptations to them. There are conditions in man's relationships with others over which he has no control; so he must make the necessary adaptations. Economic, social, and political conditions are constantly changing. Man's adaptation to this change must be a continuous process. In fact, the keynote of the entire social studies program might well be CHANGE. It is inevitable and it is desirable. An understanding of the process and an ability to adapt are essential to effective living in the contemporary world.

The Population Theme. Stated more definitely this theme becomes: the tendency of man to move from place to place in search of better ways of living. Without an understanding of this significant trend in history it is impossible to understand many phases of contemporary life.

The Democracy Theme. Democracy as a way of living, thinking, and governing has rapidly become one of the most challenging of contemporary problems. Effective living in the present and in the future must of necessity be based upon a significant understanding of the principles of democracy. The term "democracy" is used in the sense of the social ideal that intends a full realization of individual potentialities, personal participation in determining decisions, or, in brief, an abundant life for ALL.

There are two significant factors concerning these themes that must be kept constantly in the foreground. First, each theme is to be considered inclusive, that is, it must be remembered that there are many aspects and ramifications of each; second, the relationships between the themes are vital and cannot be overlooked. "The eternal triangle of forces—human nature, the geographical and climatic surroundings, and culture vie with each other in their claim for supremacy in explaining social structure and social change.[22]

In general, the units in the Fort Worth course of study include the following features:

(1) Objectives
(2) Overview
(3) Suggested Approaches
(4) Suggested Assimilative Material
(5) Suggested Activities
(6) Possible Teaching Unit Captions
(7) Suggested Culminating Activities
(8) References.

The program in Fort Worth, as shown here in Table 20, gives the units assigned to each grade, the themes to which they contribute, the aspects of the themes with which they deal, and the suggested time allotments. In this course, as compared with the one in Minneapolis, the contributions of the subjectmatter fields appear to be less sharply distinguished from each other. The programs for different half-grades can be less clearly

[22] Fort Worth Board of Education. *Social Studies, A Tentative Course of Study for Grade Eight.* Curriculum Bulletin, No. 109. Fort Worth, Texas: the Board, 1933. p. 9-10. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent W. M. Green.

designated as predominantly geography or history or other social study. That is, the identity of the separate subjects disappears to a greater degree in the Fort Worth course than in the Minneapolis course. Whether or not this is considered an advantage depends on one's judgment as to the degree to which the social studies program should be unified.

Indiana—The program for the state of Indiana is an illustration of one written as a general social studies course but making optional with individual communities the choice between (1) parallel courses in the separate subjects, (2) a present problems course based on problems of current interest but drawing on all the social sciences, and (3) a general social studies course based on problems and activities drawn from all the social sciences. "This course of study is eclectic in its nature. Some units are largely historical; others are principally geographical; some are predominantly civic; others are for the most part economic; still others are mainly social; and several are definitely unified." [23]

The work of the primary grades is organized around home and community life; that of the intermediate grades is chiefly geography; that of the junior high-school grades is chiefly history; that of the senior high-school grades appears as more highly specialized courses. A brief outline of the scope by grades follows:

THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN INDIANA [24]

Primary Grades 1, 2, 3

Stories and problems from home, neighborhood, and community life, locally and in other times and places.

First Year: How we live in our homes and neighborhoods today.

Second Year: How people supply needs and find pleasures.

Third Year: How people lived in primitive and pioneer times and in other lands.

Intermediate Grades 4, 5, 6

World life, as seen in many lands.

Fourth Year: Journeys in our own land and in typical parts of the world to find how people now live and how they have been helped to better living by worthy men and women.

Fifth Year: How people do live and how they have lived in some older parts of the world—Europe, Asia, and parts of Africa.

Sixth Year: How people discovered new lands and made new homes, and how they now live in the Americas. (This includes the periods of discovery, settlement, and the search for new homes in the West.)

[23] Indiana Department of Public Instruction. *Tentative Course of Study in Social Studies for Secondary Schools in Indiana, Grades 7-12.* Bulletin 100B-3. Indianapolis: the Department, 1933. p. 9. ¶See also: Indiana Department of Public Instruction. *The Social Studies: A Course of Study for Grades One to Six.* Bulletin 114. Indianapolis: the Department, 1935. 247 p.

[24] Indiana Department of Public Instruction. *Tentative Course of Study in Social Studies for Secondary Schools in Indiana, Grades 7-12.* Bulletin 100B-3. Indianapolis: the Department, 1933. p. 10. Printed here thru the courtesy of V. P. Mullins, director, School Inspection Division, Indiana State Department of Education.

Junior High-School Grades 7, 8, 9

The development of the nation with its relation to other lands and to its own citizens. Exploratory work in the social studies and guidance are featured.

Seventh Year: Territorial and economic development of the United States.

Eighth Year: The social and world development of the United States.

Ninth Year: The political development of the United States, and personal and occupational analysis.

Senior High-School Grades 10, 11, 12

More highly specialized courses in the social studies.

Tenth Year: World history.

Eleventh Year: American history.

Twelfth Year: Elements of social relations.

Wilmington—The social studies program in Wilmington, reproduced here in Table 21, illustrates a somewhat different approach to the planning of the program as a whole. The social studies were chosen as the area of learning in which curriculum revision in Wilmington was to be started. The general point of view may be shown by the following quotation:

> They (the social studies) comprise all of those meanings, informations, skills, and technics necessary to the development of higher standards of social living in a modern industrial age. As such, they include all aspects of living which adults usually classify under history, geography, government, economics, psychology, sociology, and philosophy. To make these effective, materials are drawn from other divisions of the social heritage, such as art, music, literature, science, mathematics, and home economics. The social studies are not taught in the separate adult-centered fields, since children do not acquire experiences in social living in this logically organized plan. Contrariwise, the social studies are concerned with aiding pupils at any grade level to increase growth in the area and depth of social meanings, informations, skills, and technics in those centers of social experience of immediate interest to the learner and of recognized social significance.[25]

The course as outlined is based on three major considerations: (1) an analysis of children's interests at each grade level; (2) fundamental concepts to be developed; (3) the general technics. A complete report of the phases of interests of children revealed is available in the same report.[26] The fundamental concepts are as follows:

(1) The increasing interdependence of people and groups.
(2) The tendency of people to adapt themselves to physical environment.
(3) Man's increasing control over nature.
(4) The migration of peoples in search of better conditions of living.
(5) Democracy—social, economic, political.[27]

The technics to be developed in the social studies program are as follows:

(1) Using sources of materials peculiar to the social studies, such as reference books, maps, globes, charts, graphs, pictures, relics, thru such activities as excursions, reading, outlining, note-taking, interpretation, and summarization.[27] (Cont. p. 125)

[25] Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Wilmington, Delaware, for the Biennium Beginning July 1, 1933, and Ending June 30, 1935. Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 44, 46.

[26] *Ibid.*, p. 93-99.

[27] *Ibid.*, p. 46-48.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
Kindergarten	Home, school, and neighborhood life	Orientation with respect to food, clothing, shelter, protection, communication, recreation	1. The school 2. The play-house 3. The grocery store 4. Dressing dolls 5. The fireman—the policeman 6. The post office 7. Travel 8. The circus 9. Other interests of children	2 weeks 6 weeks 4 weeks 4 weeks 4 weeks 4 weeks 4 weeks 4 weeks 6 weeks
1B	Home and closely related community life	The interdependence of people with respect to food, clothing, and shelter	1. How the community helps the family to get shelter—the work of the different people engaged in helping to build and to maintain homes 2. How the community helps the family to secure food—the work of the grocery man, milk man and others 3. How the community helps the family to secure clothing—the work of the shoe merchant, clothier and others 4. Experimental unit	4 weeks 6 weeks 6 weeks 2 weeks
1A	Home and closely related community life	The increasing interdependence of people with respect to communication, transportation, protection, recreation	1. How the community helps the family to communicate with others thru the post office, telephone, radio, newspaper 2. How the community helps the family to travel and to carry goods 3. How the community helps the family to protect the family thru firemen, policemen 4. How the community helps the family to play thru parks, libraries, theaters	5 weeks 5 weeks 4 weeks 4 weeks
2B	Community life	The interdependence of communities with respect to economic needs	1. How the farm furnishes us with food	18 weeks
2A	Community life	The interdependence of people and of groups with respect to economic needs	1. How the city and its workers meet our needs for food, shelter, clothing, transportation, communication, recreation	18 weeks

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
3B	Primitive man	The tendency of people to adapt themselves to physical environment with respect to simple methods of living	1. How the Indians learned to adapt themselves to their environment	12 weeks
			2. How pastoral people live	6 weeks
3A	People of the world contributing to transportation, clothing and shelter needs	The increasing interdependence of people with respect to transportation, clothing and shelter needs	1. How boats have served man	6 weeks
			2. How the rest of the world helps furnish our clothing	6 weeks
			3. How the rest of the world helps furnish our shelter	6 weeks
4B	People adjusting their life and work to various types of physical environment	Adaptation to physical environment	1. How people live in a tropical region—the Belgian Congo	3 weeks
			2. How people live in a desert region—the Sahara Desert	3 weeks
			3. How people live in a mountainous region—Switzerland	4 weeks
			4. How people live in a lowland region—Holland	4 weeks
			5. How people live in the far north—Greenland	3 weeks
			6. Summary unit—a comparison of how people live in countries north and south of the equator	1 week
4A	European explorers and colonists living in a wilderness country	Migration of people in search of improved conditions of living	1. How the Old World found the New World	3 weeks
		Adaptation of former customs and modes of life to new environment	2. How the colonists made homes in New England	6 weeks
			3. How the colonists made homes in the South	3 weeks
			4. How the colonists made homes in Delaware and the other middle colonies	6 weeks
5B	People moving westward in search of better land and becoming increasingly interdependent as methods of transporta-	Migration of people in search of more land	1. How the early settlers pushed westward across the continent	7 weeks
		Control of natural resources and adaptation	2. How geographical influences have determined the economical	

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
5B	tion and communication are improved	to physical environment	development of the western section of the United States	4 weeks
	The life and work of the people in the western and central part of the United States as they are affected by physical environment	Interdependence as affected by transportation and communication	3. How the people of the central states live and work	4 weeks
			4. How improved means of transportation and communication have helped bind the people of the United States together	3 weeks
5A	Life in the new nation under conditions of increasing interdependence	Control of living conditions thru discoveries and inventions	1. How discoveries and inventions have aided the progress of the United States	4 weeks
		Adaptation of people to changing social and political conditions	2. How the interests of the agricultural South and the industrial North clashed and the reunited nation entered a new era of industry and progress	5 weeks
	The life and work of people in the eastern part of the United States, Canada, and the possessions of the United States as they are affected by physical environment	Adaptation of life and industry to physical environment	3. How the people of the eastern section of the United States have developed industry and commerce	5 weeks
		Control of nature thru the use of natural resources	4. How the geographical location of the possessions of the United States has determined the products and industries of these regions	2 weeks
			5. How Canada has developed agriculturally and industrially	2 weeks
			6. Summary unit	1 week
6B	European backgrounds of America's cultural heritage	Interdependence of peoples with respect to cultural heritages	1. What the ancient Mediterranean countries gave to the world	4 weeks
			2. What the world owes to the Greeks and the Romans	7 weeks
			3. How people lived in the Middle Ages, and what they gave to the world	7 weeks
6A	The life and work of the people of Europe and of Asia as they are affected by physical and social environment	Control of natural resources and adaptation to environment	1. Why certain countries of Europe have developed into industrial nations	5 weeks
			2. Why certain countries of	

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
6A			Europe have remained largely agricultural nations	4 weeks
			3. How Russia and the Balkan States are changing from agricultural to industrial nations	2 weeks
			4. How the countries of Asia are developing their resources and meeting the problems that grew out of a conflict between Eastern and Western civilization	7 weeks
7B	People of southern lands modifying their culture thru adjustment to a new environment	Adaptation to natural environment	1. How man is compelled to adjust himself to the natural geographic factors of his environment	12 periods
			2. How types of environment in South America affect civilization—Brazil and Argentina	20 periods
		Control of natural resources	3. How man uses his natural resources in South America	16 periods
		Adaptation to a changing environment	4. How people live today in some old civilizations—Central America, Mexico, Cuba, West Indies	12 periods
		Interdependence of the world at large	5. How North and South America have become sister countries thru travel and trade	12 periods
		Adaptation to and control of natural environment	6. How man adjusts himself to unfavorable environment in Africa—desert life, tropical life, coastal plain	20 periods
		Control of natural resources	7. How modern civilization has affected life in backward lands—Algeria, Tunis, Egypt, South Africa	20 periods
		Adaptation of life to environment	8. How people live in isolated lands—Australia, New Zealand, and some South Sea Islands	12 periods
		Interdependence of the world at large	9. What southern lands have contributed to world civilization	20 periods

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16 Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
7A	Expansion of European civilization into the New World and the beginning of American culture	Migration of people in search of better conditions of living	1. How life in the fifteenth century forced trade, discovery, and exploitation of new lands	24 periods
		Adaptation to and control of environment	2. How European nations secured permanent settlements in the New World	24 periods
		Interdependence of communities	3. How people lived in the English colonies	24 periods
		Control of environment thru the use of natural resources	4. How the European nations struggled for the possession of a new continent	24 periods
		Democracy with respect to the development of political institutions	5. How the Thirteen Colonies became the United States	24 periods
		Migration of people in search of more land	6. How the more advanced nations expanded into new and backward lands	24 periods
8B	American culture as it is reflected in the extension of the frontier and in the development of the country from an agricultural to an industrial nation	Migration of people in search of better conditions of living	1. How the frontier moved westward in American life	28 periods
		Adaptation to and control of natural resources	2. How the United States has become the greatest food-producing nation in the world	21 periods
		Adaptation to changing social and political conditions	3. How cotton has affected the development of the United States	20 periods
		Control of natural resources	4. Why the United States is an industrial nation	21 periods
			5. How the United States developed from an agricultural nation to an industrial one	24 periods
		Adaptation to environment	6. How differences in physical environment bring about conflicts of interest between various sectional groups—industrial, mining, agricultural	12 periods
8A	American culture as it is reflected in developments resulting from the welding together of people of many cultural	Adaptation to and control of environment	1. How people of many national and racial cultures are making a unified nation	24 periods
		Control of natural re-	2. How environmental condi-	

[a] Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
8A	heritages—the increasing interdependence of people and the growth of political and social democracy	sources	tions have contributed to the development of commerce	24 periods
		Interdependence of people in world affairs	3. How the United States became a world power	28 periods
			4. How the increasing interdependence of people has affected the relationships of the United States with the world at large	30 periods
9B	Problems of community and national living	Democracy with respect to community relationships	1. How people thru cooperative effort and careful planning have made their communities better places in which to live	6 weeks
		Democracy with respect to national relationships	2 How groups of people thru cooperative effort have tried to make America a better place in which to live	6 weeks
		Adaptation to changing conditions	3. How man is trying to conserve his natural and human resources	6 weeks
9A	Problems of community and national living	Interdependence of vocational groups	1. How man is trying to meet the problem of making a living	6 weeks
		Control over energy resources in new problems of adjustment	2. How man is trying to solve the problem of leisure time	6 weeks
			3. How man is trying to solve the problem of the consumption of goods	6 weeks
9B	Primitive man and the beginning of civilization	Adaptation to physical environment	1. How early man laid the basis for later civilizations	4 weeks
	Greek civilization	Democracy with respect to social development	2. How the Greeks developed a high standard of social democracy	6 weeks
	Rise and decline of Roman civilization	Democracy with respect to political development	3. How the Romans developed a high standard of political democracy, and the forces which brought about its downfall	8 weeks
9A	The Dark Ages	Migration of people as a factor in social and economic change	1. How the migration of early people brought about new racial and religious problems	4 weeks
	The Middle Ages	Control of environment	2. How man's increasing knowl-	

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
9A			edge of his environment during the Middle Ages brought new problems of living	8 weeks
	The Reformation	Interdependence resulting from increasing knowledge	3. How the Reformation increased the problems of interdependence and resulted in the beginning of world expansion	6 weeks
10B	The struggle for democracy and the development of nationalism	Democracy in a changing civilization	1. How the principles of democracy and nationalism swept across Europe	9 weeks
	The Industrial Revolution and the problems which grew out of it	Control of nature thru technological progress	2. How the first industrial revolution changed man's life and brought new problems	9 weeks
10A	The story of imperialism	Migration of people as it affects the development of new lands	1. How man's desire for greater possessions led to a greater world dependency	8 weeks
	The World War and its resulting problems	Interdependence of people in world affairs	2. How the increasing complexity of world affairs has brought about worldwide problems of national relationships	10 weeks
11B	The beginnings of the United States as an independent nation	Democracy with respect to the development of social and political institutions	1. How the United States began	5 weeks
	The problems arising from the growth of the United States in the post-revolution period	Migration of people in search of better conditions of living	2. How the United States became a nation	8 weeks
	The Civil War era and the period of reconstruction	Adaptation with respect to changing political and social life	3. How the United States became involved in an internal struggle, and how the resulting problems were solved	5 weeks
11A	The industrial and agricultural development of the United States	Control of nature thru technological progress	1. How increasing technological progress made the United States one of the foremost industrial and agricultural nations	5 weeks
	The growth of the United States as a world power	Interdependence of people in world affairs	2. How the United States became a world power	5 weeks
	The increasing complexity of foreign affairs		3. How the increasing complexity of world affairs has made it necessary for the United States to take a more important place in world relationships	8 weeks

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

TABLE 21.—TENTATIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE (REVISED, JANUARY 1935)[a]—Continued

Grade	Center of interest	Concepts to be developed	Aspect of centers of interest to be emphasized	Suggested time
12B	Social problems of American democracy	Democracy with respect to the development of social and political institutions	1. How the civil liberties of American citizens originated and the means by which they may be retained	5 weeks
			2. How the people thru cooperative effort have attempted to organize government so that it will serve their democratic purpose	5 weeks
			3. How cooperative living in a complex industrialized civilization results in many problems of cooperative effort	8 weeks
12A	Economic problems of American democracy	Democracy in a complex civilization	1. How the principles of economics are applied in their functional relationships	18 weeks

a Stouffer, S. M. *Cooperative Curriculum Revision.* Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education, 1935. p. 101–16. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent S. M. Stouffer.

(Cont. from p. 117)

(2) Interpreting social problems thru intelligent thinking, to include such processes as selecting worthwhile problems, collecting and organizing materials, evaluating sources, outlining and summarizing, presenting and discussing conclusions in both oral and written expression, compiling pertinent bibliographies, and documenting statements wherever necessary.
(3) Developing a time and space sense thru time lines, chronological perspective, map scales, and judging distance.
(4) Utilizing objective procedures in the understanding, interpretation, and integration of life today by approaching the solution of current problems insofar as possible without emotional bias.
(5) Developing good study habits, which include not only a sound psychology of learning, but also budgeting the time of the individual so that his work, not only in social studies but in all other important life activities, may not be neglected.
(6) Promoting increased facility in expression ideas, with a wide variety of materials in various media, such as sand, clay, paper, wood, crayon, pencil, paint, and other tools.

The units themselves are organized under the following general divisions:

(1) Overview, written in narrative form.
(2) Approaches, in outline narrative form.
(3) Major problems to include:
    (a) Activities
    (b) Content and references for pupils
    (c) Materials.

(4) Culminating activities, in outline narrative form including tests to measure outcomes.
(5) Children should show growth in:
    (a) Understandings
    (b) Information
    (c) Technics.
    This should be written in outline form.
(6) Bibliography for teachers, in outline form.[28]

Ann Arbor—The program of social studies in Ann Arbor [29] thru Grade IX takes the place of separate courses not only in geography, history, and civics, but also in industrial arts. Further, the activities in social studies serve frequently as the basis for learning in fields such as language and literature. As compared with the programs in Minneapolis and Fort Worth, it is organized much more around children's purposes, and, perhaps for this reason, is even more flexible. Thruout the courses of study the teacher is urged to organize the learning activities around the purposes, problems, and experiences of the children in the particular class. In the primary grades, the list of projects proposed is only suggestive, and teachers are to choose in terms of the needs of their classes. In Grade III thru Grade VI certain unit experiences are set up in the course, but teachers are invited to modify the content and order as need arises. In the junior high-school grades, units are provided, but a specified period of time each term is left unassigned to provide opportunity for the consideration of pressing problems in the community. One such "pressing problem" was met by a unit on sewage disposal designed to give the pupil an opportunity of considering the problem of sewage disposal in Ann Arbor in its economic and social aspects. Another was a unit on the financial crisis in education designed to give experience with the problems of financing and administering education in a time of financial crisis. In the senior high school the usual separate subjects are offered but stress is laid on those elements in the past which link up with presentday problems. Controversial issues are welcomed as opportunities to develop understanding of the factors involved and skill in cooperative thought and action.

The following quotation from the course of study for Grade III thru Grade VI gives the general plan of the program:

> In the main, the plan of this course of study has been to prescribe the general field or the scope within which problems and experiences in each grade may arise, without prescribing definitely what the particular experiences shall be, the forms which they may take, or the order in which they should occur.
>
> The problem of teacher preparation under such conditions becomes a bit more difficult than under a more rigidly prescribed program.

[28] Stouffer, S. M., *op. cit.*, p. 52.
[29] Haisley, Otto W. *Teaching the Social Studies in the Ann Arbor Public Schools.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: Board of Education, 1935. 29 p.

The main considerations in the teacher's mind should be, first, that the children be actively engaged in carrying out purposes which to them seem worthwhile; second, that thru these purposeful activities they relate meanings, that is, that they gather information which has a bearing on the problem or purpose and that thru this purpose all such information be unified and integrated; and third, that out of these experiences other worthwhile experiences may come.

The materials given under Detailed Suggestions by Grades are organized in such a way as to suggest method of procedure in an experience rather than absolute requirements. The work of each grade is arranged in the form of unit experiences. Each unit is discussed in terms of a problem, which is in turn organized or developed thru the subjectmatter related to the problem, suggested approaches to the problem, and activities related to the problem. *The problems are not to be accepted verbatim, nor are they to be followed in the order given. Problems should come from the group and should be formulated and expressed in terms of the experiences of that group.* The approaches, likewise, are merely suggestive of types of procedures and are not mandatory. Particular points of departure must be determined in the light of the needs and experiences of each group. The activities also are merely suggestive. In this field teachers should discover among the specific suggestions given, types of activities which are feasible in various situations. No teacher is expected to follow these suggestions if others of equal worth present themselves, and no group is expected to follow all suggestions given. If problems and purposes are clearly defined, the activities appropriate to the carrying out of the purpose will follow naturally. In the carrying out of purposes, however, children need to be guided into a great variety of activities, such as study, recreational reading, creative expression with materials, creative group life, experimentation, and observations. Because of this fact, the number of activities suggested in each unit is very large and covers a wide range. *No teacher can or is expected to follow all the suggestions.*[30]

The unit experiences for Grade III thru Grade VI, as outlined in the course of study, are organized as follows: (1) Related subjectmatter, (2) suggested approaches, and (3) suggested purposes and activities. For each grade also there are a statement of immediate objectives and a very comprehensive bibliography arranged both for teachers and for children under three main divisions: (1) informational books, texts, biography; (2) source materials; and (3) modern literature related to the social background of the subject.

The units for Grade VII thru Grade IX, as outlined in the course of study, are organized as follows:

(1) Introduction
    Delimitation and definition
    Social justification for the unit
    Curriculum integration

[30] Ann Arbor Board of Education. *Social Studies in the Public Schools of Ann Arbor, Michigan—Grades Three to Six.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: the Board, 1929. p. 5. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent Otto W. Haisley.

Peculiar local considerations
Major facts and hypotheses which aid in attacking problems involved in this unit

(2) Professional literature
(3) Fields of experience peculiar and in most cases fundamental to this unit
(4) Solving the problem
Suggested approach activities
Several statements of the general problem as derived from pupils
Suggested activities which may be used in the solution of the problem
(5) Experiences in planning and social action
(6) Materials for the pupils
Visual materials
Reading references and materials in the building
Reading references and materials not in the building.

The Ann Arbor program may be outlined as follows:

THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN ANN ARBOR

First and Second Grades[31]

Group Projects

First Grade	Second Grade
House	Fire station
Aeroplane	Post office
Train	Newspaper
Boat	Circus
Carpenter	Grocery store
Lumber yard	Farm
Stores:	Community
Grocery store	Library
Toy store	Magazine
Greenhouse	City servants
A study of milk	City and environs map
Dairy	Puppet plays
Care of pets	Parties
Chicken farm	Assemblies
Valentine party	
Parties	
Assemblies	
Millinery store	
Nature experiences and activities.	

Individual activities with clay, wood, cloth, paint, books, and paper cutting and tearing
Dramatizations
Festivals and special days.

Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grades[32] (Problems around which the unit activities are to be organized)

[31] Ann Arbor Board of Education. *Social Studies in the Public Schools of Ann Arbor, Michigan—Grades: Kindergarten, One and Two.* Ann Arbor: the Board, 1931. p. 40-41. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent Otto W. Haisley.

[32] Ann Arbor Board of Education. *Social Studies in the Public Schools of Ann Arbor, Michigan—Grades Three to Six.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: the Board, 1929. 346 p. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent Otto W. Haisley.

Grade 3B

What are our houses made of and what people have worked together to provide us with them?
How are our houses lighted and heated and furnished with water?
What kind of houses did the first people who came to Michigan build?
What kind of houses do other people of the world have?
How did people live before they knew how to build houses?

Grade 3A

Where do our clothes come from and what people work together to furnish them for us?
Why do peoples of the world dress so differently?
How did people find out about wool?
What peoples in the world today depend largely upon their flocks for a living, and why is life among pastoral peoples so simple?
To share our experiences with others.
To improve habits in the care of clothing.

Grade 4B

Where does our food come from and what people are working together to supply it?
How did man learn to be a farmer?
Where does silk come from?
Where does rubber come from?
To collect and take care of all materials needed in the work.
To test on all subjects studied.
To share with others experiences enjoyed thru the year.

Grade 4A

How do people travel and carry goods from place to place?
When and how did man learn to make and use boats?
What is life in Mediterranean lands like today?

Grade 5

In what ways are the people of the United States and Europe interrelated?
In what ways are the peoples of Europe interdependent?
What is life in the British Isles like and in what ways are the people of these countries related to other peoples in Europe and to us?
Eight other units with similar questions for Germany, Baltic countries, France, Spain, lowland countries, Scandinavian countries, Balkan and Central European countries, and Switzerland.
Are the nations of Europe more or less interdependent today than they were during the Middle Ages?

Grade 6B

What were the forces in Europe which led to the discovery of America?
What were some of the major physical phenomena with which the explorers had to wrestle and which they had to conquer?
How did the European people become rivals for the possession of the New World and what resulted from the rivalry?
How did the American spirit emerge out of the life in the New World?
How did the forces underlying this spirit culminate in the United States as an independent nation?

Grade 6A

How did our country become what it is today?
What was life among the American Indians like?
What were the steps and contributing factors in the development of the United States as a great industrial nation?
How does this great industrial nation provide itself with food?
How has the nation been bound together by means of the development of transportation?
What has the United States to offer in the way of natural beauties and cultural materials?

Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades[33]

Grade 7B

Guidance—Orientation to Junior High School: A unit designed to facilitate the adjustment of the pupil entering junior high school and to assist him in realizing the cooperative aspect of life as evidenced in vocational and other life relationships. (3 weeks)
Community Health: A unit designed to familiarize the child with the social aspects of the health problems of the community. (3 weeks)
Ann Arbor's Adjustment: A unit designed to give the child experiences in studying his own community in respect to the adjustment of the community to its environment with special emphasis on the technics of inventorying and planning. (7 weeks)
Suffrage: A unit designed to provide experience in suffrage as a necessary function in a democratic society. (3 weeks)
Unassigned or Pressing Problem. (3 weeks)

Grade 7A

Fields of Invention: A unit designed to deal with the process of invention and the place of invention in social progress. (4 weeks)
Utilization of Natural Resources: A unit designed to give the child experiences dealing with the basic materials of the universe in order that he may develop an interest in wise social spending of natural resources in terms of his personal needs. (6 weeks)
City Government and Services: A unit designed to give the child an insight into the problems of the city government and the services which the city government renders to the community. (6 weeks)
Unassigned or Pressing Problem. (3 weeks)

Grade 8B

Guidance—Personal Analysis and Vocational Survey: A unit designed to give the child a chance to explore vocational opportunity thru a survey of the several broad fields of work and to consider his adjustment to them in terms of his peculiar personality. (6 weeks)
Transportation and Communication: A unit designed to provide for individual experiences in the field of transportation and communication in order that the part played by such facilities may be fully understood. (4 weeks)

[33] Ann Arbor Board of Education. *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order, Social Studies in the Public Schools of Ann Arbor, Michigan, Junior High School, Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: the Board, 1933. 307 p. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent Otto W. Haisley.

Selection of Cultural Ideals: A unit designed to provide an opportunity for the formulation of a set of individual ideals based upon an acquaintance with the ideals of the various distinct cultural groups of the world. (6 weeks)

Unassigned or Pressing Problem. (3 weeks)

Grade 8A

Guidance—Educational Plans: A unit designed to give the individual pupil an opportunity to plan his future educational and vocational career. (6 weeks)

Control of Production: A unit designed to permit experiences which will create an understanding of our present system of producing and the social and technical problems that grow out of our industrial life. (5 weeks)

Fundamental Institutions—Home, School, and Church: A unit designed to allow the child to become acquainted with the services rendered by the home, the school, and the church both to the individual and to the community. (5 weeks)

Unassigned or Pressing Problem. (3 weeks)

Grade 9B

Adjustments to the Region: A unit concerned with the direct and fundamental relationships which must of necessity be considered by the child in making his most vital adjustments to his geographic region. (6 weeks)

Non-Local Governmental Services: A unit designed to offer the child a group of experiences which will aid him in classifying and understanding his contacts with governments other than municipal government. (4 weeks)

Control of Distribution: A unit designed to aid and protect the child in his everyday buying and selling activities, thru an understanding of the economic principles involved. (6 weeks)

Unassigned or Pressing Problem. (3 weeks)

Grade 9A

Taxation: A unit designed to provide experiences for the pupil in the field of community taxation and public finance and especially in his relationship to these problems. (3 weeks)

Selection of National Governmental Ideals: A unit designed to assist the child in thinking comparatively and selectively concerning the four types of national governments. (4 weeks)

Law Enforcement: A unit designed to give the child experiences in the field of law enforcement seen as a necessary element in group cooperation of any kind. (3 weeks)

World Peace: A unit designed to give to the pupil an opportunity to consider war and other methods of settling international disputes. (6 weeks)

Unassigned or Pressing Problem. (3 weeks)

Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Grades[34]

Literary Preparatory—choice of three sequences

10 Ancient and Medieval History	World History 1, 2	World History 1, 2
11 Modern History 1, 2	American History and Civics 1, 2	American History and Civics 1, 2
12 American History and Civics 1, 2		Home and Foreign Problems

[34] Information from personal letter from Superintendent Otto W. Haisley.

Scientific Preparatory, Engineering Preparatory, and Commercial

10 World History 1, 2
12 American History and Civics 1, 2

General Curriculum

10 World History 1B, 2B
11 American History and Civics 1B, 2B.

The Integrated Curriculum

In the completely integrated curriculum there would be, presumably, no subjects as such. Pupils would engage in varied activities thru which they would reach the objectives for which the school is set up. These activities would be adjusted to the purposes, capacities, and needs of pupils at each age level. In many cases, they would cut across conventional subject-matter lines. Not only would the social studies be unified, but also the social studies as a major field of instruction would largely disappear in form altho its spirit would permeate the entire program.

No such curriculum exists in practise at the present time. Perhaps the nearest approximation to it in a large public school system is the Virginia core curriculum.[35] This curriculum is organized around a central core which is the social studies viewed broadly. The course-of-study bulletin for the curriculum facilitates integration because it is arranged basically by grades, altho a section is included also on subjectmatter materials. The core program for each grade is built around a "center of interest." The activities carried on in each grade are chosen to illuminate selected "aspects of the center of interest." These aspects correspond to the eleven major functions of social life, to the understanding of which the work of each grade is expected to contribute. The following quotation will make clearer the scope of the Virginia core curriculum.

> It becomes necessary, with the desired direction of growth defined by the aims of education, to outline the areas thru which growth may proceed with greatest regularity and cumulative development. This is an extremely important task for if poorly done the growth of the child will be uneven and discontinuous. What he does today will have little relationship to what he did yesterday; what he does in a given period, to what he does in other periods; or what he learns in schools, to real life situations. The result is failure to develop maximum meanings, and failure to give the pupil a fundamental orientation in social life. It may also result many times in a positive tendency to develop harmful personality conflicts and compartmentalized beliefs.
>
> Desirable characteristics of an outline of scope are held to be as follows:
>
> Consecutive, cumulative movement in the development of the child should be provided.

[35] Virginia State Board of Education. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools. Grades I-VII,* Richmond: the Board, 1934. 560 p.

Freedom should be allowed for the teacher to organize instruction around purposeful experiences of children of varying capacities and abilities.

The pupil should be oriented to the aspects of social life in which he must participate.

A core should be provided for the entire period of school attendance around which materials from the various subjects may be organized.

In outlining the scope of work for the Virginia curriculum, "centers of interest" are selected to serve as major limitations for the work of each grade. Four criteria were employed as a basis of selection.

The center of interest should exert significant influence on the functional phases of social life.

There should be numerous objects and activities within the area of the centers of interest that are of interest to children on the level for which the center of interest serves as a limitation.

There should be adequate instructional materials of suitable difficulty to develop the center of interest on the level for which it serves as a limitation.

The center of interest should provide for maximum growth of desirable concepts and should offer opportunity for participation by the pupils in socially significant undertakings.

Points to be emphasized in developing the respective centers of interest are defined by means of major functions of social life. These functions indicate pivotal points in social life about which activities group. Consequently, it is important, in order to develop an educational program which orients the pupil to social life, that understanding of the way these functions are discharged be provided, and that opportunity to participate in activities related to them be offered.

The centers of interest and points of emphasis derived from the major social functions indicate the scope of work for the respective grades. An outline of the scope of work for the eleven-year period of public school education is presented in the following chart.[36]

The Virginia course of study presents the aims of education under the following general headings: emotionalized attitudes, generalizations, and special abilities. The scope or area of work is given for each grade as in Table 22. For each grade are then given in considerable detail the suggestive raw materials of instruction, including interests, activities, subject-matter, teaching procedures, and methods of evaluation.[37] A wide variety of materials is suggested in order to permit great flexibility. Each teacher is encouraged to use such materials from the course as fit his situation, or such other materials as may occur to him as being more appropriate. Instructional organization has two major phases: the development of units of work to which materials from all fields will contribute, and provision for mastery of certain abilities which require direct teaching emphasis.

[36] *Ibid.*, p. 15.

[37] For illustrations of the type of material given for each grade, see Chapter IX.

TABLE 22.—SCOPE OF WORK IN THE CORE CURRICULUM

Major functions of social life*	Grade I HOME AND SCHOOL LIFE (Center of interest)	Grade II COMMUNITY LIFE (Center of interest)	Grade III ADAPTATION OF LIFE TO ENVIRONMENTAL FORCES OF NATURE (Center of interest)
	Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**
Protection and Conservation of Life, Property, and Natural Resources	How do we protect and maintain life and health in our home and school?	How do we in the community protect our life, health, and property? How do animal and plant life help people in our community and how are they protected?	How do people, plants, and animals in communities with physical environment markedly different from ours protect themselves from forces of nature?
Production of Goods and Services and Distribution of the Returns of Production	How do the things we make and grow help us?	What do we do in our community to produce goods and services?	How do environmental forces of nature affect the goods produced in different communities?
Consumption of Goods and Services	How does our family provide itself with food, clothing, and shelter?	How do we use the goods and services provided in our community?	Why can communities markedly different from ours furnish us with goods we cannot produce?
Communication and Transportation of Goods and People	How do members of our family travel from place to place?	How does our community provide for transportation and communication?	How does physical environment affect transportation and communication?
Recreation	How can we have an enjoyable time at home and school?	How does our community provide for recreation?	How does the physical environment influence types of recreation?
Expression of Aesthetic Impulses	What can we do to make our home and school more beautiful and pleasant?	What do we do to make our community attractive?	How do people in communities markedly different from ours express their artistic impulses?
Expression of Religious Impulses			How do people in different communities express their religious tendencies?
Education			How do people in different communities provide education?
Extension of Freedom			
Integration of the Individual			
Exploration			

* The order in which the major social functions and the aspects of the centers of interest for each grade are presented has no particular significance.

FOR VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS[a]

Grade IV ADAPTATION OF LIFE TO ADVANCING PHYSICAL FRONTIERS (Center of interest)	Grade V EFFECTS OF INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES UPON OUR LIVING (Center of interest)	Grade VI EFFECTS OF MACHINE PRODUCTION UPON OUR LIVING (Center of interest)	Grade VII SOCIAL PROVISION FOR COOPERATIVE LIVING (Center of interest)
Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**
How does frontier living affect the protection of life, property, and natural resources?	How do inventions and discoveries alter our ways of protecting and conserving life, property, and natural resources?	How does machine production lead to the conservation and to the waste of life, property, and natural resources?	How do social and governmental agencies protect and conserve life, property, and natural resources?
How does frontier living modify and how has it been modified by the production and distribution of goods and services?	How do inventions and discoveries affect the variety and availability of goods?	How does machine production increase the quantity and variety and change the quality of goods?	Why are governmental monopolies established for the provision of certain services?
How does frontier living restrict the consumption of goods and services?	How is the consumption of goods and services influenced by discoveries and inventions?	How does machine production of standardized goods influence the choice and use of goods?	How do social agencies influence the consumer in his choice and use of goods?
How do ways of transportation and communication serve to advance frontiers?	How do inventions and discoveries improve our means of transportation and communication?	How does machine production affect transportation and communication?	How do methods of transportation and communication affect cooperative living?
How is recreation influenced by frontier living?	How do inventions and discoveries influence recreation?	How does machine production influence recreation?	How are social and governmental organizations extending opportunities for the wise use of leisure time?
How are music, literature, and art affected by frontier living?	How do inventions and discoveries affect our art, music, and literature?	How does machine production modify art, literature, music and architecture?	How do social organizations provide opportunities for expression of aesthetic impulses?
How is religion affected by frontier living?	How do discoveries influence the spread of religion?	How does machine production influence the development of the church?	How does the church function as a means of social control?
How is education influenced by frontier living?	How do inventions and discoveries influence education?	How does machine production influence education?	How does education function as a means of social control?

[a] Virginia State Board of Education. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I–VII.* Richmond: the Board, 1934. p. 16–19. Printed here thru the courtesy of Sidney B. Hall, state superintendent of public instruction.

TABLE 22.—SCOPE OF WORK IN THE CORE CURRICULUM

Major functions of social life*	Grade VIII Adaptation of Our Living Thru Nature, Social and Mechanical Inventions, and Discoveries (Center of interest)	Grade IX Agrarianism and Industrialism, and Their Effects upon Our Living (Center of interest)
	Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**
Protection and Conservation of Life, Property, and Natural Resources	How and why do nature and agencies resulting from invention and discovery affect the protection and conservation of life and property?	How and why does the change from an agrarian to an industrial order affect the use and conservation of natural resources?
Production of Goods and Services and Distribution of the Returns of Production	How does man depend upon plant life, animal life, and minerals, and how do inventions and biological discoveries increase man's use and control of nature?	How does the change from an agrarian to an industrial society affect the production and distribution of goods and services?
Consumption of Goods and Services	How do inventions and discoveries affect the well-being of the consumer?	How and why do standards of living vary in agrarian and industrialized societies?
Communication and Transportation of Goods and People	How do improved means of communication influence the behavior of individuals and groups?	How does the application of power and modern business enterprise to transportation modify our living and thinking?
Recreation	How does man adapt his play to the character of the society in which he lives?	How can recreation lend significance and beauty to the common activities of life in modern society?
Expression of Aesthetic Impulses	How do man's natural environment and his inventions provide worthwhile opportunities for the cultivation of aesthetic expression?	How do agrarianism and industrialism influence the development of our artistic resources and the adjustment of all individuals to their use?
Expression of Religious Impulses	How does man manifest his religious impulses thru social inventions?	How do religious organizations influence living in agrarian and industrial societies?
Education	How does the home utilize social invention in the early development of standards of value in the child?	How does the American system of education contribute to the development of the ideals of democracy in our industrialized life?
Extension of Freedom	How and why are men denied the freedom which social and mechanical inventions make possible?	How and why does the struggle for attaining the democratic ideal modify industrialism and agrarianism?
Integration of the Individual	How can physical development and social controls promote the integration of the individual and avoid conflicts?	How can an industrialized society provide for realization of individual ideals and ambitions?
Exploration	How does man's conquest of nature aided by the spirit of adventure lead to geographic exploration and commercial expansion?	How does the spirit of pioneering influence the development of equality of opportunity both in an agrarian and in an industrial setting?

* The order in which the major social functions and the aspects of the centers of interest for each grade are presented has no particular significance.

FOR VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS [a]—Continued

Grade X EFFECTS OF CHANGING CULTURE AND CHANGING SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS UPON OUR LIVING (Center of interest)	Grade XI EFFECTS OF A CONTINUOUSLY PLANNING SOCIAL ORDER UPON OUR LIVING (Center of interest)
Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis	**Aspects of center of interest selected for emphasis**
Why is advancement in the protection and conservation of life and property essential in a changing society and how can it be achieved?	How can nations thru social planning guarantee to all the protection of life, property, and natural resources?
How can we improve production, establish an economic balance between production and consumption, and provide for a more equitable distribution of the returns of production?	How can nations plan for the establishment of proper economic interdependence by apportioning the production of goods and services and by distributing these more equitably to the consumer?
How does the advancement of science affect the thinking and the welfare of the consumer?	Used above
How do improved means of transportation and communication influence changing cultures and affect relations between nations and people?	How can modern means of transportation and communication be utilized to enhance the social welfare of nations and people?
How may changing ideas lead to the elimination of undesirable phases of commercialized recreation and promote the development of healthful and creative recreation?	How can a planning society utilize increasing leisure time to develop recreation as a creative agency for everybody?
How do culture areas and changing social institutions influence the development of the fine arts?	How can a planning society improve the quality of living for all by utilizing man's desire for beauty?
How does a changing culture affect the church as an agency of social control?	How can religion in a planning society give poise and stability to personality, motivate conduct, and foster ethical business practises?
How and why does individual and social adaptation to a changing culture make necessary constantly changing emphasis in education?	How shall social groups plan to provide for their preservation and reconstruction thru education?
How do changing culture and changing social institutions make necessary a changing concept of freedom?	How can a planning society extend political, economic, intellectual, and social freedom to all people?
How can the individual maintain mental poise in a rapidly changing culture?	How can opportunity for the integration of the individual in a modern social order be provided thru organized means?
How do changes in culture result from social and intellectual pioneering?	How can we plan to advance human welfare and eliminate the defects of the present social order by the spread of scientific modes of thought?

a Virginia State Board of Education. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I-VII*. Richmond: the Board, 1934. p. 16-19. Printed here thru the courtesy of Sidney B. Hall, state superintendent of public instruction.

Daily programs are very flexible, but provide time for both these phases of instruction. Much emphasis is placed on collecting and recording information regarding children's needs, interests, abilities, and the experiences provided thru the school.

In addition to the grade materials, which constitute the bulk of the Virginia course of study and which cut across conventional subject lines, a section is devoted to subjectmatter materials in each field. This section for social studies includes an "abilities chart," [38] a portion of which is reproduced in Figure I. Those abilities over which a reasonable control may be developed by the instruction received in carrying on the units of the core curriculum are checked in the second column. Those abilities which probably will require instruction in addition to that provided in the units are checked in the third column. The relative degree of teaching emphasis to be placed on each ability in each grade is indicated in the graph at the right. The section on social studies materials includes also suggestions for making and using maps and making time lines, a checklist of items of information, and a bibliography.

Conclusion

This chapter has suggested a set of principles basic to the organization of the curriculum in the social studies. They apply not only to the program as a whole but also to the internal organization.[39] For purposes of summary in the formulation or appraisal of a program, these principles may be rephrased as questions.

(1) Is the program comprehensive and balanced: are learning situations provided to attain all major objectives of the social studies, and is the distribution of emphasis among these situations properly balanced?

(2) Is the program well articulated vertically: does it provide for progressive, continuous development thru the school years?

(3) Is the program well articulated horizontally: does it provide for proper correlation with the learning experiences offered in other fields of instruction in the same grade?

(4) Are the learning situations real: do they resemble as closely as possible those met in life that have social implications?

(5) Does the program promote self-integrated learning: does it emphasize the organization of learning in and by the child rather than in the course of study or in the mind of the teacher?

(6) Is the program adapted to the maturity of the learner: does it fit the learner's level of development?

[38] Virginia State Board of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 457-60.

[39] See Chapter IX, "The Internal Organization of the Social Studies Program."

ABILITIES	Instruction Within Unit Probably Adequate	Instruction in Addition to that in Unit Probably Required	Teaching Emphasis — Grades 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
To judge type of map projection	x		
Ability to use a time table	x		
Ability to use institutions and services of the community			
To make wise use of conveyances of transportation, post office, parks, theatres	x		
To observe processes and personnel in industrial plant	x		
Ability to maintain efficient economic status (310)			
The ability to use property			
Ability to take care of furniture and conserve school materials such as: books, paper, etc.	x		
Ability to improve conditions at home and school by the use of shrubbery, flowers, trees, etc.	x		
Ability to conserve public property, buildings, forests, game, song birds, etc.	x		
The ability to use money			
Ability to spend allowance or earnings wisely and to save a part of same	x		
Ability to contribute to worthy causes	x		
Ability to compare the quality and price of articles bought at stores	x		
Ability to judge the merits of claims made by advertisers of articles or services for sale	x		
Ability to make wise investments	x		
The ability to make wise use of time			
Ability to use leisure time in wholesome recreation	x		

FIGURE I.—ABILITIES CHART IN SOCIAL STUDIES FROM THE VIRGINIA STATE COURSE OF STUDY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (Second page of a four-page chart).

(7) Is the program adapted to community characteristics: does it take adequate account of distinctive characteristics and needs in the local community?

(8) Is the program individualized: is there appropriate and adequate adaptation to differences among individuals?

(9) Is the program flexible: does it encourage variation in content and method to meet the needs of different times, places, and persons?

(10) Does the program contribute to the general objectives of the school as well as to those objectives that are unique to the social studies?

The evaluation of the social studies program in any particular school system in the light of these principles is difficult for anyone not in possession of all the facts. Obviously, the mere outline of a program cannot give the entire picture, and yet to do more would require more space than is available. In this chapter, therefore, little attempt has been made to evaluate the illustrative outlines presented. Their chief value is that they afford examples of different plans of organizing the social studies program as a whole. Seven programs are given in outline form. The Reading, Massachusetts, program is given as an illustration of the organization by separate subjects; the Minneapolis, Fort Worth, Indiana, Wilmington, and Ann Arbor programs, as illustrations of general social studies; and the Virginia core curriculum, as an illustration of the integrated curriculum.

CHAPTER VII

THE SELECTION OF CONTENT FOR SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES

UNTIL RECENTLY, the selection of appropriate details of content for a course of study in the social studies was not a problem keenly and directly felt by teachers and administrators. For the most part, the general areas of subjectmatter-to-be-covered were blocked out by national or regional committees. Among the most influential of these committees in the social studies field were the Committee of Seven, reporting to the American Historical Association in 1899, and a subcommittee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, reporting to the National Education Association in 1915. As late as 1923 [1] the recommendations of these two committees were the basis upon which the social studies courses in two-thirds of the nation's secondary schools were organized. The specific content of courses thus installed by committee recommendation was filled in by the textbook writers; to a very large extent the content of courses in the social studies during the first quarter of the present century was selected by textbook authors in fields circumscribed by general committees.

The arrival of unrest—The traditional procedure outlined above had the disadvantage of increasing the rigidity of instruction in social sciences. Courses of study became both generalized and inflexible. The inevitable lag of what was taught in school behind what was happening in a rapidly changing society occasioned "the arrival of unrest" in respect to the program of social studies. Along with increasing recognition of individual differences among pupils came recognition of the educational significance of differences among communities and regions. Evidence of the unwillingness of national groups to prescribe definite courses of study for the country at large appears in the report of the most recent Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association which, thirty-five years after the Committee of Seven, endorses the adjustment of the curriculum to current and local needs. During the same three and a half decades the domination of the textbook has been challenged; champions of extensive rather than intensive reading have appeared. Changes within the social sciences have forced school instruction in the subjects to go beyond, not alone the textbooks, but also the classroom walls. As shown in Chapter XI, field trips, community surveys, current events, radio, the movies—all

[1] For a review of the history of the social studies in the schools and their status in 1923, see: Dawson, Edgar. "The History Inquiry; Report." *Historical Outlook* 15: 239-72; June, 1924. ¶ Tryon, Rolla M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XI. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935. 541 p.

give the social studies a new means and a new impetus toward continual readjustment to current and emerging realities.

All these, and other, factors have increased tremendously in recent years the opportunities and the responsibilities of individual teachers and local school systems in the selection of appropriate content for the social studies curriculum. Today, as not before for years, the making of the curriculum is in the hands of those who teach and directly administer it. The enormous number of communities in the United States today having committees actively engaged on the local reorganization of the curriculum in the social studies is an indication of the change which has come about. The technic of curriculum-making, described in Chapter XIV of this volume, is a symptom of the times.

Advantages and dangers of recent trends—The new situation makes possible a more flexible and locally sensitive curriculum. But there are dangers as well as advantages in the situation. Teachers and administrators, sometimes not as well trained as they should be, usually overpressed with work, sometimes out of contact with current trends of a basic nature, sometimes overinfluenced by local pressure groups, *may* make a curriculum marvelously adjusted to the social needs of a given group of pupils in a given setting or they *may* construct a makeshift, inconsistent, and ill-considered curriculum of hopeless mediocrity. Flexibility and adaptation to immediate situations are precious things, but if the new freedom is to be used effectively, it is essential that sensitive intelligence guide the work of those who select the content of the social studies course of study.

The preceding chapters of this yearbook have made clear the importance of the step of selecting content for teaching purposes—a content which includes raw subjectmatter, the ideational interpretation of that subjectmatter, and the experimental activities by which pupils learn, and which involves not only the nature of the social studies but also the objectives of education. The subject content of the social studies is inconceivably vast, reaching far thru time and space, and selection from it must be based on established criteria; the selected content must be in agreement with acceptable standards. It is the purpose of this chapter, first, to suggest as succinctly as possible three of these criteria or standards, and to review briefly some of the technics by which curriculum-makers and research workers seek to apply them.

Criteria for the selection of the content of the social studies—The first criterion which should guide curriculum-making groups and against which the proposed content of social studies must be evaluated is that of *accuracy*. Recognizing that final truth in societal matters is unknown even if knowable, and that most significant problems are highly controversial in such

an age as ours, we are still bound by the tenets of a scholarship to which we owe a large measure of allegiance to see that no known untruth be taught as true. A second quality we have the right to demand in material selected for teaching purposes is that of *usefulness*. Usefulness is not a narrowly utilitarian or materialistic quality, but one of the broadest significance. The pupil has the right to expect that that which is taught him in the schools be applicable to and helpful in meeting the situations of normal living. A third criterion is that of *learnability*. We may construct a curriculum which is at once accurate and useful, at least potentially so, and yet find that our efforts are in vain because we have failed to assay the ability of pupils to learn. Learnability is an elusive matter, for it involves method of teaching as well as grade placement and recognition of individual differences, but it is a criterion which contemporary education emphasizes.

In the evaluation of educational content on the basis of these three criteria, professional psychologists and educators, observers of society, and scholars in the various social disciplines must work cooperatively. To select what is accurate, curriculum-makers must cooperate with scholars in special fields; to select what is useful, they must cooperate with those who have the keenest view of the current scene, of trends, and possibilities; and to select what is learnable they must cooperate with educational psychologists and carry on prolonged and intensive investigation and observation of day-by-day procedure in the nation's classrooms. All such cooperative effort must be guided by constant reference to the high hope of selecting content which meets the requirements of scholarship, the broad and relative demands of social and individual usefulness, and the educative necessities inherent in the nature of those who are to learn.

Determining the Accuracy of Content

In the past, in spite of our sins in respect to scholarly truth, we have not worried greatly about the accuracy of what was taught. The facts that the curriculum rarely ventured into current affairs or into the newer social sciences and that, generally speaking, the textbook writers were competent historians and geographers meant that the dependability of content was fairly well guaranteed. Today, with new materials of a complex sort coming into the curriculum, with pressure groups extraordinarily active,[2] and with curriculum-making less dominated by the scholars of subject fields, the difficulty of maintaining and increasing the quality of truthfulness in social studies courses is intensified.

[2] See: Pierce, Bessie L. *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part III. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. 428 p.

The chief safeguard which can be erected against the wilful or unconscious distortion of truth is insistence on better training in the fields of subject content for the teachers, especially those who are to participate actively in curriculum-making—It is wise to avoid filling the curriculum with superficialities or distortions as well as to avoid making of a teacher an advocate of the special interests of his field. It would be eminently wise to add to the existing pedagogical and professional requirements for teaching, requirements concerning training in the social studies themselves. Able people whose college and university training has been largely in fields other than the social studies are not qualified to make the best social studies curriculum. Good courses in social studies must be taught by people so trained in the social sciences and alert to their social environment that they may use materials effectively in training children. The selection of adequately trained teachers and curriculum-makers, then, is the first guarantee of a curriculum which does not violate the criterion of accuracy.

A second phase involves further training of teachers in service in respect to the advancing frontiers of their subjects—Lectures, extension classes, and forums in the social science field should be encouraged; such activities, moreover, offer an excellent opportunity for tie-up with a community's adult education program. In communities where outside help can be procured for a curriculum-making body, the historians, geographers, sociologists, economists, social psychologists, and political scientists, as well as professional specialists in curriculum-making, should be utilized as consultants. The hopes and fears and plans and practises of the curriculum-making group should be checked against a background of scholarship.

Other technics for safeguarding accuracy may be developed—Curriculum proposals may be well examined in the light of selected basic bibliographies in appropriate fields. In the issues of the *Historical Outlook* from November 1931 thru May 1932 appeared a series of articles on "Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies," prepared by Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota. The books there listed represent recent developments in the fields of ancient history, medieval history, modern history, American history, government, economics, sociology, and social psychology.[3] The magazine *Social Studies* publishes periodically reviews of the current literature in the social science fields.[4] By frequent examination of the curriculum

[3] Wesley, Edgar B., compiler. "Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies." *Historical Outlook* 22: 341-43, November; 403-406, December, 1931; 23: 30-34, January; 86-89, February; 127-30, March; 177-80, April; 227-31, May, 1932. The entire series of articles is available in pamphlet form from the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia.

[4] See: Bradley, Phillips. "Literature of Politics, 1934." *Social Studies* 26: 166-89; March, 1935. ¶ Commager, Henry Steele. "Literature of American History, 1934," *Social Studies* 26: 233-53; April 1935. ¶ Cole, Charles W., and Clough, Shepard B. "The Literature of World History, 1934." *Social Studies* 26: 381-400; October, 1935. ¶ Wirth, Louis, and Shils, Edward A. "The Literature of Sociology, 1934." *Social Studies* 26: 459-75; November, 1935.

to discover whether it makes provision for the materials and points of view of the recent books in these and other lists, the curriculum may be brought into new alignment with advancing scholarship. Another type of investigation needed is one which will list the few basic and minimal books in each scholarly field which should be familiar to the teacher and curriculum-maker, and the points of view which should be recognized in a well-balanced curriculum.[5]

Accuracy, however, is not something which can be determined by a clerical yardstick—Nor can accuracy be determined merely by reference to such volumes as the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*. Accuracy involves the thoughts, words, and gestures of teachers as well as the texts and courses of study. Scholarship as a quality of mind is not a lifeless suspension of active judgment. In true scholarship there inheres a vivid element of imagination, an inevitable flavor of personality. Scholarly thinking cannot be divorced from the teacher's total intellectual behavior. Only those curriculums which, in actual operation, represent and reflect the judicial frame of mind of the thoughtful and informed person can be said to be accurate in the spirit as well as the letter of scholarship. There must be no conscious deviation from the path and the point of view of scholarship if the social studies course of study is to be realistic and far-sighted. The teaching of ideas or ways of thinking which are demonstrably not in accordance with the evidence is not more justifiable than is the direct distortion of fact. If we know now that the question of the gold standard was not settled in 1896, we are not justified in teaching that it was so settled. What we consider true today may not be so considered tomorrow—a fact which is an essential phase of the judicial frame of mind!—but wishful thinking even on controversial ground cannot be substituted for sound scholarship with any permanent success.

Determining the Usefulness of Content

Usefulness of subjectmatter must necessarily be determined in reference to basic purposes and plans, such as those stated in earlier chapters of this volume. Usefulness involves a large measure of prediction, and prediction is not an easy or simple matter in the social sciences. The broad utility of an item of fact, of a skill, of a concept, depends upon the kind of life a pupil is living and will live and upon the character of society now and in the proximate future. Since it is impossible to predict the social future in any detailed and final sense, mistakes in judgment as to what

[5] Typical of such a study is one, as yet incomplete, now under way by Wilson C. Colvin, Harvard Graduate School of Education. Writing to professors of American history in American colleges and universities, Colvin asked each of them to suggest the ten most important volumes published to date in the field of American history. By combining their lists the investigator hopes to formulate a list of the basic books in the field, without reference to which no curriculum is adequate.

is useful to pupils must inevitably occur. Yet an attempt to decide upon curriculum content as to its usefulness must be made, and can be made with profit. Knowledge of the isolated fact that Benjamin Franklin wore a simple, brown velvet suit and did not wear the customary wig when he was first received by the King of France as the representative of a newly-recognized nation is not likely to be of much use to the average citizen unless it be as an illustrative detail of a larger pattern of thought. Some knowledge of the vagaries of the Father of Waters is probably of more use to the average American than is a considerable knowledge of the English Thames.

Usefulness or importance of social studies content may be gauged on three bases—immediate usefulness in the situation in which the pupil finds himself, later usefulness in school work, and usefulness in the dimly visioned situations of the long continuity of life after schooling. An ideal item or activity for the curriculum may be useful in all three capacities, but such items are relatively rare. Normally, the three aspects of usefulness must be balanced against one another. In an older day the third aspect was much emphasized; current educational thinking is likely to give more weight to the first aspect, that of immediate usefulness.

Every age has tried to construct a useful curriculum, albeit with varying degrees of success. In the past the technic of selecting useful curriculum content and curriculum experiences was that of adult reflection, often referred to as "arm-chair philosophizing." In recent years there have been various attempts to judge usefulness on the basis of direct analysis of life's activities. Since 1910 [6] there have been attempts to apply aspects of scientific method to the selection of useful curriculum content, altho all of the studies which have been made are more or less subjective even when cataloged as scientific. Without accepting the fruits of activity-analysis as the final content of the curriculum, it is yet essential that the curriculum-maker be familiar with them. The analyses now available in the social studies field offer valuable evidence as to what is relatively not useful even if they do not determine positively what shall be taught. The studies which have been made during the last twenty-five years may be classified as (1) studies intended to tabulate socially useful information, (2) studies intended to mark out relatively significant social areas or problems or topics or issues, (3) studies intended to list the social concepts or generalizations most significant, that is, most widely applicable, in the comprehension of social forces, and (4) studies intended to tabulate desirable social and civic traits. While it is impossible to review here the findings of all these

[6] Earle Rugg's *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship* (Greeley: Colorado State College of Education, 1928. 214 p.) brings together descriptions and digests of many of the earlier semi-scientific studies of the usefulness of social studies content.

studies, it may be useful to list some of them in annotated form, and to attempt to present a general reaction to them.

Studies intended to tabulate socially useful information—The devices for determining socially significant facts are various and limited in their reliability. Among the first "activity analyses" made (defining that term broadly) are several which involve simply the securing of consensus of opinion among scholars. The following two studies[7] are typical of the technic followed; the results of such studies are sometimes illuminating, but do not yield a final measure of social utility.

(1) Whitbeck, R. H. "Where Shall We Lay the Emphasis in Teaching Geography?" *Education* 31: 108-16; October, 1910. A list of locational facts was prepared by seventy-five school people. The list was then rated by six geography specialists; consensus of opinion determined relative importance of the facts.

(2) Wooters, J. E. "Elementary American History Standards: Results of an Investigation Carried on To Determine the Most Important Dates for Memorizing in the Elementary School." *School and Home Education* 34: 152-55; December, 1914. Seventy-one members of the American Historical Association listed the twenty most important dates in American history. Consensus of opinion determined relative importance.

Somewhat more ambitious has been the attempt to locate useful information by determining what social science facts appear most frequently in newspapers and magazines. Reading such current literature is an important phase of normal living; on the theory that pupils should be made familiar with items of fact mentioned in the things they will probably read, a group of investigators has surveyed a wide variety of newspapers and magazines. At first, frequency of mention of items was the criterion of importance; in later studies both frequency and persistency of mention over the span of years surveyed determined importance. Among the studies are:

(3) Charters, W. W. *Curriculum Construction.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. p. 270-72. First October numbers of the *Literary Digest* in alternate years, 1899-1913, were examined for items in place geography. Items ranked on frequency of mention.

(4) Bagley, W. C. "The Determination of Minimal Essentials in Elementary Geography and History." *Fourteenth Yearbook, Part I,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1915. p. 131-39. Samplings of such magazines as the *Outlook* and the *Literary Digest* for the years 1906-1913 were analyzed to discover the types of references and their frequencies.

(5) Marston, L. R.; McKown, H. C.; and Bagley, W. C. "A Method of Determining Misplacements of Emphasis in Seventh and Eighth Grade History." *Seventeenth Yearbook, Part I,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1918. p. 90-96. A determination of the most im-

[7] The studies in each of the lists given in the chapter are listed in the chronological order of their completion. Analysis of the order will reveal the development of the technics described.

portant personages of the years 1765-1865 on the basis of (1) space accorded to each in encyclopedias, (2) ratings by historians, and (3) mention in samplings of the *Atlantic Monthly,* the *Nation, Collier's,* and the *Saturday Evening Post.*

(6) Thomas, J. B. *A Study in Minimal Essentials of Geography for the Elementary Schools.* Unpublished master's thesis, Indiana University, 1919. Analyzes a sampling of the *Indianapolis News,* the *Danville Gazette,* and the *Youth's Companion* for 1911-1918 to determine frequency of mention of geographical terms.

(7) Washburne, Carleton W. "Basic Facts Needed in History and Geography; A Statistical Investigation." *Twenty-Second Yearbook, Part II,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1923. p. 216-35. Analyzes about fifteen issues each of fourteen magazines and four newspapers for the years 1905-1922, tabulating all allusions to persons, places, dates, and events. Items are listed on bases of frequency and persistency of mention.

(8) Harper, W. W. *The Vocabulary Content of Economics for Kansas High Schools.* Master's thesis, University of Kansas, 1931. Ten representative Kansas newspapers were studied over a period of six weeks, and all economic terms were tabulated. The newspaper vocabulary in economics was then compared with textbook vocabulary.

A third group of studies tabulates certain types of information in books, on the theory that the more significant and abiding discussions of social matters are to be found there rather than in periodicals and newspapers. A few studies have been made of books generally read; a larger number of studies analyze the books of scholarly "frontier thinkers." Among the studies in this third group are:

(9) Horn, Ernest. "Possible Defects in the Present Content of American History as Taught in the Schools." *Sixteenth Yearbook, Part I,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1917. p. 156-72. Twenty-seven books in political science, economics, and sociology, recommended by the heads of departments in these fields at the University of Iowa, were examined to see what historical information they utilized. Additional examination was made of thirty-eight articles covering similar topics in the *International Encyclopedia.* Historical facts and allusions were listed in order of frequency.

(10) Bassett, B. B. "The Historical Information Essential for the Intelligent Understanding of Civic Problems." *Seventeenth Yearbook, Part I,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1918. p. 81-89. The (1) persons, (2) periods of history, (3) foreign countries, and (4) historical movements, events, conditions, and problems referred to in twenty-two advanced books in civic problems recommended by a group of political scientists and in articles covering the same fields in the *Encyclopedia of American Government* were tabulated. It was assumed that such references would be more revealing than the references in magazines and newspapers or in popular books.

(11) Dodd, Sue H. "History in Poetry." *Journal of Educational Research* 4: 294-300; November, 1921. The historical terms and allusions found in 118 English poems, knowledge of which was required for entrance to the University of Illinois in 1918, were tabulated, on the assumption that one common use of history is the illumination of literature.

(12) Peters, C. C. *Foundations of Educational Sociology.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. "Detailed Analysis of One Objective of Cultural Education," p. 419-24.

Assuming that one should understand the historical and geographical references in general reading matter, tabulation was made of such references in 26 popular novels, 25 short stories, 4000 jokes, 2000 comic pictures, and the legends of 10 motion pictures.

Still a fourth group of studies is concerned with the attempt to tabulate socially valuable information. These studies combine the technics of the analyses listed earlier—analyses of personal opinions, of magazines and newspapers, and of books—and sometimes add other types of data (as financial returns, population statistics, etc.) to their criteria. Among the studies of this group are to be found some of the most useful of the analyses. Typical studies are:

(13) Branom, M. E., and Reavis, W. C. "The Determination and Measurement of the Minimal Essentials of Elementary School Geography." *Seventeenth Yearbook, Part I,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1918. p. 37-39. Determined countries "most worth studying" by rating them as to area, population, imports, and exports. Minimal list of cities based on population figures. Minimal list of products based on order of aggregate value.

(14) Rugg, Harold, and Hockett, John, with the assistance of Emma Schweppe. *Objective Studies in Map Location.* Lincoln School, Social Science Monographs No. 1. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. The importance of geographical locations was determined on the basis of data concerning population, foreign trade, bank clearings, area, frequency of use in 100 issues of critical magazines, frequency of use in six books by "frontier thinkers," analysis of articles on locations in the *Readers' Guide* and *International Index* for 1919 to 1923, and checking against Washburne's list (Study No. 7 above).

(15) Williams, B. M. *A Critical Study of Possible Methods of Evaluating Biographies for the Purpose of Curriculums in the Social Studies.* Master's thesis, University of Iowa, 1926. A critical summarization of previous attempts to determine the personages most important in history.

As one reads thru these semi-scientific studies for the tabulation of socially useful information one is impressed with the very small measure of agreement there is as to what items of specific fact are worth knowing and worth teaching. The lack of agreement, however, does not seem due to the confusion of thinkers or to the narrowness of the analyses, so much as it is due to the fact that items of specific information, for the most part, acquire their significance not as entities but as parts of larger patterns of thought or idea. There seems to be increasing recognition that studies treating items of factual data in individual isolation are not likely to reveal which items are or are not socially valuable.[8] At best, the studies of socially important information are several degrees removed from practical application in a far-sighted curriculum.

[8] For critical evaluations of the technics of activity analysis which review some of the specific studies reported above, see: Sisson, Edward O. "Statistical Determination of the Social Science Curriculum." *Journal of Educational Research* 27: 41-45; September, 1933. ¶ Phinney, J. T. "The Objective Selection of Curriculum Material in the Social Studies." *Social Studies* 25: 69-72; February, 1934. ¶ Phinney, J. T. "The Scientific Reconstruction of the Social Studies Curriculum." *Social Studies* 25: 107-11; March, 1934.

Studies intended to mark out significant topics or problems or issues—A fairly large number of studies have been made which deal not with items of information but with the comparative evaluation of topics or problems or issues. The attempt is to discover what socially significant topics ought to be treated in the school curriculum if pupils are to be prepared to understand the aspects of social affairs which impinge on current society most markedly. Some of the studies analyze newspapers and magazines; others analyze books at various levels of scholarship. A typical list of such studies includes the following:

(1) Bassett, B. B. *Civic Instruction of the American Electorate.* Doctor's thesis, University of Iowa, 1918. See: "The Content of the Course of Study in Civics." *Seventeenth Yearbook, Part I,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1918. p. 63-80. The study tries to discover "the most significant and persistent problems of the American people which seek solution thru the machinery of government." Problems referred to in (1) all national political party platforms since 1832, (2) national issues in state platforms since 1889, (3) all the platforms of major parties for 1910, (4) state platforms in California, Indiana, and New York since 1850, (5) all Iowa platforms since 1889, and (6) platforms in one southern state were tabulated and rated as to frequency and persistency of mention.

(2) Davis, M. B. *Topics To Be Included in Instruction in Civics as Indicated by Analysis of Current Periodicals.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1921. Analyzed twenty-one periodicals for 1920-21 and topics in the *Readers' Guide* for October 1920. Rated topics most discussed as most important.

(3) Bowman, E. C. *A Study in the Objectives in the Teaching of High-School Economics.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1922. Tabulated the economic topics listed in the *Readers' Guide* for 1912-1921, and a sampling of the articles referred to to discover topics most discussed.

(4) Cocking, W. D. *The Attitude of the Public to the Teaching of Citizenship.* Master's thesis, University of Iowa, 1923. Five hundred and ninety-three laymen suggested topics to be emphasized in education for citizenship. Importance based on consensus of opinion.

(5) Horn, Ernest. "The Application of Methods of Research to Making the Course of Study in History." *Twenty-Second Yearbook, Part II,* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1923. p. 235-39. Investigated library withdrawals in New York City in 1913 and books published 1912-1913 to discover what emphasis is given history in general reading.

(6) Sharon, J. A. See Ernest Horn, *ibid.,* p. 242-43. Tabulated amount of space devoted to topics discussed in nine representative newspapers for a period of two weeks.

(7) DeBoer, Laurence P. *Civic and Social Topics Discussed in Woman's Clubs.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1924. Three hundred and thirteen programs of woman's clubs in Illinois were analyzed to determine the nature and frequency of the topics discussed.

(8) Nason, J. M. *International Relations as Revealed by Editorials, Cartoons, and Textbooks in American History.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1925. Analyzed the items of international relations treated in editorials of five magazines and cartoons of two magazines, tabulating the items as to frequency of mention.

(9) Bobbitt, Franklin, and others. *Curriculum Investigations.* Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 31. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1926. "Major Fields of Human Concern: the Evidence from Periodical Literature," p. 7-31. Analyzes (a) the titles appearing in *Readers' Guide,* 1919-1921, (b) topics treated in 180 issues of the *New York Times,* 1924, and (c) topics treated, geographic areas and forms presented, and biographies mentioned in a sampling of 14,720 columns of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica.*

(10) Palmer, Paul L. "Major Fields of Human Concern: the Evidence from the 'Literary Digest.'" See Bobbitt, *ibid.,* p. 40-53. Major topics dealt with in a sampling of *Literary Digests,* 1890 to 1900, and in all issues 1900 to 1925, were tabulated as to frequency of mention.

(11) Bixler, Genevieve K. "Social Problems of the Labor Group." See Bobbitt, *ibid.,* p. 88-97. Analysis of seven periodicals and ten books to tabulate references to labor affairs.

(12) Beatty, Edward C. O. *The Economic Science of Everyday Life as Revealed by a Study of Current Periodical Literature.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1926. 191 p. Twelve weekly and monthly periodicals were analyzed to determine the topics on economic problems dealt with. The significance of the findings to the content of high-school courses in economics is pointed out.

(13) Hockett, John A. *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life.* Contributions to Education, No. 281. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 101 p. A tabulation of "some of the most significant problems and issues of political, economic, and social life in America today" as found in (1) twenty volumes by "frontier thinkers," (2) the current events columns of the *Literary Digest,* 1920-1925, and (3) the editorial sections of the *New Republic,* the *Outlook,* the *Nation,* and the *Independent* for 1921, 1923, and 1925.

(14) Lee, Baldwin. *Issues in the Social Studies.* Lincoln School, Social Science Monographs No. 3. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 191 p. Analyzes twenty-two books of "frontier thinkers" to discover what they consider the issues of today, tabulating 807 issues with which the social studies should deal.

(15) Bullock, Royal S. *Economics for Consumers.* Master's thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, 1928. Tabulates topics treated and generalizations used in the ten books on home-making rated as best by forty-two experts.

(16) Carstensen, Eva H. *The Use of History in Advertising.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1929. 68 p.

(17) McCormick, J. Scott. *Possible Content for a Course in the Social Studies as Revealed by an Analysis of Newspapers.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1930. Analyzes ninety-six issues of newspapers published in English in the Philippine Islands, 1923-1929, tabulating topics treated and rating topics according to (1) column-space occupied, and (2) persistency of mention.

(18) Grimes, Archie B. *The Sociology of Newspapers.* Master's thesis, University of Iowa, 1931. Column-inches devoted to sociological topics in issues of the *Cedar Rapids Evening Gazette,* the *Des Moines Register,* and the *Chicago Tribune* for twenty-four weeks of 1930 were measured and topics rated as to importance on basis of space received.

(19) Hess, George O. *Economics in the Press.* Master's thesis, University of Iowa, 1932. Rated economic issues according to space allotted them in *Chicago Tribune,*

Hibbing Tribune, Saturday Evening Post, American Magazine, and *Pictorial Review* for June 1931 to June 1932.

(20) Melbo, Irving R. *Graduating High School Seniors' Information on Contemporary Social, Political, and Economic Problems and Issues.* Unpublished doctor's thesis, University of California, 1934. Preliminary to the analysis of pupils' information, thirty selected books and references from twenty-nine periodicals of 1932-1934 were scrutinized to determine the most important contemporary problems and issues.

(21) Goodhue, William S. *Problems of the Pacific Area.* Unpublished course thesis, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1935. Analyzes topics about the Pacific area treated in samplings of the Sunday edition of the *New York Times* for the years 1925-1935.

The studies dealing with social areas or topics particularly significant for educational purposes analyze newspapers, magazines, lists of magazine titles, books, political party platforms, programs of women's clubs, issues on which people are expected to vote, and opinions of various groups of people. Necessarily the studies are limited somewhat geographically and by the time covered; many of the studies are so restricted in scope as to be directly useful only to a few schools and perhaps as examples of what other schools and investigators may do. The topics or issues tabulated in the studies are classified on such diverse bases that synthesis of their results is extremely difficult in any objective form.

The various topics rated in these investigations as most worth teaching in the schools have to be compared with the topics now normally included in the school curriculum, and this a number of studies have done. Indeed, the textbooks used in the schools are regarded by some investigators as sources in which to determine the relative importance of social topics. Analyses of textbooks, with tabulations as to topics treated and space devoted to them, are not included in this chapter, inasmuch as measuring textbooks in order to determine what to put in other textbooks is at best a superficial way to determine what is socially useful.

Studies intended to list socially significant concepts and generalizations—A third, and perhaps more penetrating, approach to the problem of discerning what is likely to be useful for pupils of the social studies, is the tabulation of concepts and generalizations. Concepts and generalizations go beyond subjectmatter; they are at once interpretations of subjectmatter, insights into human experience, and direct objectives of educational effort. The close relation between generalized ideas and the organization of subjectmatter in units is discussed elsewhere in this volume. In a sense, the possession by pupils of a series of pertinent concepts and generalizations is either a prerequisite to their fruitful study of such topics and problems and issues as are noted above, or is the direct and final outcome of their study of selected areas of experience. Concepts and generalizations drawn from subjectmatter but built into the pupil's mental outlook

help bridge the gap between information as such and educational values as such.

A number of studies have been made during the last decade which attempt to list the understandings or ideas which we should try to teach children. Among the studies are the following:

(1) Meltzer, Hyman. *Children's Social Concepts; a Study of Their Nature and Development.* Contributions to Education, No. 192. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. 91 p. Analyzed samplings of four critical magazines for the period 1919-1923, and four outstanding critical books in order to tabulate the definitional concepts used. Tabulated 228 concepts, listed in order of frequency of mention.

(2) Billings, Neal. *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum.* Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929. 289 p. Analyzed twenty-eight books of "frontier thinkers," listing 888 generalizations used by one or more authors.

(3) Shane, Jessie. *An Analysis of the Concepts, Allusions, Problems, and Generalizations of Sixty Critical Magazine Articles.* Master's thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, 1931.

(4) Wallace, Alberta. *Generalizations and Problems Basic to a Geography Curriculum.* Master's thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, 1931.

(5) Blythe, Irene T. "The Textbooks and the New Discoveries, Emphases, and Viewpoints in American History." *Historical Outlook* 23: 395-402; December, 1932. Thirty-two "new discoveries, emphases, and points of view" as stated by leading historians in thirty volumes published 1893 to 1928 are listed.

(6) Beard, Charles A. *A Charter for the Social Sciences.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part I. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. p. 79-83. In a discussion of "the climate of American ideas," are listed the convictions which are elements of expanding American democracy.

(7) Rowell, Edwin T. "Geographical Generalizations Used in Studying American History." Unpublished course thesis, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1932. Listed nineteen basic geographical generalizations used in geographer's discussions of history.

(8) Engle, Elizabeth M. *An Evaluation of the Educational Concepts of Geography and Social Science Including a Summary of Research in Geography.* Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1934.

The eight studies here listed vary greatly among themselves, but are undoubtedly illuminating to the curriculum-maker. The tabulation of generalizations drawn from advancing scholarship and their rating as to general usefulness or applicability to life-situations are worthy of much more extended investigation.

Studies intended to tabulate the activities and traits of citizens—Another avenue of investigation deals more directly with the "normal activities of living" by attempting to tabulate the traits of good citizenship, observable social deficiencies, or actual activities of civic life. Among the studies already completed in this area of investigation are:

(1) Alderman, G. H. "What an Iowa Layman Should Know about Courts and Law." *School Review* 30: 360-64; May, 1922. Studies cases and causes of litigation in Johnson County, Iowa, by examining court records for 1907-1909. Assumed that the causes which bring men to court determine the knowledge of courts they should have. Tabulated causes on basis of frequency of occurrence.

(2) Snedden, David. *Civic Education.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1922. A subjective particularization, from a sociological point of view, of the desirable abilities and activities of citizens.

(3) Bobbitt, Franklin. *How To Make a Curriculum.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 292 p. With the aid of 3000 experienced teachers, Bobbitt listed the abilities which good citizens ought to possess. Chapter 7 tabulates the abilities within the purview of the social studies.

(4) Breeze, Retha E. "What Constitutes Good Citizenship?" *School Review* 32: 534-36; September, 1924. Tabulated in order of frequency, 212 traits of good citizenship recommended by 148 leading citizens of the country.

(5) Harap, Henry. *The Education of the Consumer, a Study in Curriculum Material.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. 360 p. By study of census information and data on purchases made by the public, tabulation was made of the economic activities of average citizens, and deficiencies pointed out.

(6) Wells, C. C. *The Political Science of Everyday Life as Revealed by Analysis of Newspapers and Periodicals.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1925. Tabulated the classes or types of activities mentioned in newspapers from ten sections of the country 1923-1925, and in the *Readers' Guide* and the *New York Times Index* for 1924.

(7) Lorenzen, Clara H. *Approved Social Behavior as Revealed in Recent Literature.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1925. See Bobbitt, *Curriculum Investigations* (Study No. 9 below), p. 103-109. Six books on etiquette, eleven books on making a living, and 123 articles in magazines for 1919 to 1925 were analyzed to tabulate the forms of behavior which seem to be most approved by society.

(8) Mahan, T. J. *Duties, Difficulties, and Qualities of Citizens.* Master's thesis, University of Colorado, 1925. Eight lay citizens of Greeley, Colorado, were interviewed to discover the duties, difficulties, and qualities of citizenship which, in their opinion, were most significant.

(9) Bobbitt, Franklin, and others. "Quality of Conduct." *Curriculum Investigations.* Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 31. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1926. p. 98-102. Analyzed eighteen books of essays to tabulate the qualities of citizenship recommended by them.

(10) Nietz, John A. "Duties and Traits of a Good Citizen." See Bobbitt, *Curriculum Investigations,* p. 54-68. In order to tabulate the duties and traits of citizenship the editorials of 168 issues of seven newspapers, 1921-1925, and 55 articles on citizenship in eighteen magazines and bulletins were analyzed. Data were rounded out by interviews with 111 civic leaders in 1925.

(11) McGee, Alice E. *The Views of Colored Students and Laymen Respecting the Duties and Difficulties of a Good Citizen.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1929. One thousand seniors of two colored high schools and fifty colored adults in Saint Louis were asked to list the duties, difficulties, and qualities of good citizenship. Results are presented as to frequency of mention.

(12) Church, Russell L. *The Application of United States History to the Social and Personal Problems of High School Pupils.* Master's thesis, University of Pittsburgh,

1930. By questionnaire, 127 teachers reported (a) problems considered significant by pupils and (b) applications of American history to the solution of the problems.

(13) Peters, Charles C. *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education.* New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1930. 302 p. The book presents a "blueprint" of positive characteristics of good citizenship, based on 1000 case studies of good and poor citizens made by schoolmen at Ohio Wesleyan University, the University of Kansas, and the University of California.

(14) Wyckoff, Marion M. *The Worthy Use of Leisure Time as an Objective of Teaching History in the Junior High School.* Master's thesis, New York University, 1931. A study of the actual use of history in leisure time, involving an investigation of existing studies, data of 150 questionnaires, and a study of provisions for leisure time from courses of study and textbooks.

(15) Mustard, Fred Plummer. *Determining the Civic Information Needed by a Citizen of Kokomo, Indiana.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1933. The civic activities performed by the families of 140 school pupils over a period of fifteen weeks are tabulated to determine the emphasis needed in civic instruction.

(16) Hunt, Norman R. "Social Attitudes and the Social Sciences in the Junior High School." *Historical Outlook* 24: 210-16; April, 1933. A subjective tabulation, based in part on other investigations, of twenty-seven attitudes "which would seem desirable."

Valuable as some of the studies in citizenship activities are, one is impressed by the fact that the vocabulary of the field with which they deal needs to be carefully standardized before the full bearing of the studies in relation to one another can be determined. A major defect of most of them, moreover, is that they do not distinguish adequately between social deficiency and social achievement. To know that the citizens of a given community, for example, pay taxes and secure licenses as their most frequent civic activities does not determine (a) whether the activity is so important that its proper performance should be taught in schools, or (b) whether the activity is one which people learn in the normal routine of living and therefore one to which the schools need give less attention.

Materials needed to make a more useful curriculum.—Activity-analysis, as it has been applied to the social studies, has not succeeded in revealing the nature and content of a useful curriculum. The studies reported are semi-scientific in character, consisting primarily of the objective tabulation of subjective data; their chief contribution is that of the particularization of objectives. They have sought to break "citizenship" into its component parts, and in so doing have shed new light on aspects of citizenship even if they have failed to "put the parts together again."

As has been said, it is not possible to synthesize the results of the various investigations summarized above in any objective way in order to produce a satisfactory or complete blueprint of the desirable course of

study in the social studies.[9] The investigations are complexly different as to specific purpose, as to point of view, as to technic, as to scope, and as to results. Nevertheless, they constitute a distinct contribution to curriculum-making. No alert worker in the curriculum field can fail to inform himself of their results; they furnish raw data for his thinking. Not only have their results some direct application to the selection of content for the course of study, but their spirit and technic are undoubtedly excellent spurs to the critical reexamination of curriculum values. It is likely that intelligent participation in such investigations makes one more critical of that which one teaches, a fact which should lead many directors of curriculum-making in local areas to sponsor further investigations of the types described as means of self-discipline and self-education on the part of the curriculum-making groups.

Such studies as have been listed above attain their greatest value when considered in close relation to wholly subjective writing on the curriculum, to studies of curriculum practises and curriculum trends, and to studies of pupils' achievements and deficiencies in school work.[10] One further and probably much more significant approach to the determination of what content is most useful in the curriculum is the direct study of social trends, the analysis of evolving social patterns. Without understanding, to the extent that such understanding is possible, present society and its emergent forces one cannot predict what is likely to be useful to citizens. Curriculum-makers who are not familiar with the report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, for example, are not equipped for their task; the various volumes of that report, without direct focus on the curriculum, reveal criteria of usefulness which activity-analysis has not discovered. Few definitive studies have been made of the implications for the curriculum in the various governmental and private surveys and reports on current trends; in such study lies a fertile field.[11]

Without attempting to combine the data of the studies referred to in objective fashion, but considering them in relation with the present work of the schools and the present trends of American society, it is possible to crystallize a general reaction to them and to formulate certain pro-

[9] In unpublished theses written at the Harvard Graduate School of Education in 1935, John W. Higgins analyzed the treatment accorded the single topic *Labor Problems* in the studies listed above, and Isadore Swartz surveyed the data accumulated about the proper place of the topic *Crime* in the curriculum. Both investigators found it impossible to synthesize properly the material of the studies.

[10] For an extensive and significant analysis of pupils' knowledge of current affairs see: Melbo, Irving R. *Graduating High School Seniors' Information on Contemporary Social, Political, and Economic Problems and Issues.* Unpublished doctor's thesis, University of California, 1934. The author reports that the pupils graduating from thirty-eight California high schools possessed accurate information on about one-third of the 200 selected issues or problems, possessed no information on another third, and were actually misinformed on a third.

[11] For suggestive beginning studies in this field see: Bottenfield, Esther M. *The Relation of the Social Studies in the High School to Social Trends.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1933. ¶ Rosander, A. C. "Implications of the Recent Social Trends Survey." *Social Studies* 25: 225-31; May, 1934.

posals for the revision of the social studies curriculum toward the end of greater usefulness. It would seem that materials ought to be selected for school use which will illumine for pupils the areas of human experience listed below. In each of these areas are to be found socially useful information or generalizations, or problems and issues, or civic activities which possess for pupils a high measure of utilitarian as well as cultural value. Major topics or areas, not now treated adequately in most schools, which would increase the direct usefulness of the social studies curriculum, are as follows:

(1) *The Nature of Government:* The schools have tended to teach facts about governmental structure, "but neither politics nor political science." Pupils rarely envision government as a social process. Yet in an age of revaluation of democratic theories, of conflicting questions of fascism and communism, of constitutional questionings within our own nation, it is desirable that pupils gain in school deeper insights into the realistic working of politics, the nature and function of a state, the basic elements of a democratic theory, and the broader phases of political theory.

(2) *The Activities of the National Government:* The expansion of federal activities in recent years has far outrun the usual textbook account of the national structure. Individuals come into increased contact with the national government thru its emergency activities as well as its generally expanding sphere of action; their contacts should be illumined by knowledge of the total framework of the government. The relation of state and nation, the relation of the executive to the other branches of government, should be given increased attention.

(3) *The Problems of Metropolitan Government:* The overlapping agencies of municipal, county, and state governments in the metropolitan areas of the United States are notably weak spots in our political structure. Their improvement is dependent upon the spread of concrete information and critical attitudes.

(4) *International Relations:* The problems of international action in a nationalistic world need fuller attention in the social studies curriculum than they now receive. Particularly, material about the Pacific area, about the technics of international politics, and about the foreign policies and international needs of outstanding nations should be taught. Selecting adequate content on international relations is a matter involving revision of existing history courses as well as the addition of new units of work in the social studies.

(5) *The Relation of Industry and Government:* The economic activities of modern peoples and the political agencies of modern states come into closer and closer contact with one another. The relations between them are of basic importance to the individual; critical consideration of the relations should constitute a more significant part of the social studies curriculum.

(6) *Taxation and Public Finance:* The taxation methods of a nation, striking close to the heart of political efficiency and national welfare, also affect closely the welfare of individuals. The schools generally have done little to inform pupils in respect to financial questions of a public nature; pertinent information could well be added to existing courses or organized in new topics for instruction.

(7) *Investment and Finance:* Among the problems looming largest to the average individual are those of saving and investing; they are as significant elements of economic security for the individual as are matters of taxation and currency for national

welfare. The schools have done little in presenting insurance and investment possibilities and dangers to pupils, and yet significant material can be selected for both the elementary and the secondary schools. Redirection of thrift education and the refocusing of some topics in economics and modern problems courses directly on such personal problems are likely to increase the direct usefulness of education.

(8) *Consumer Education:* Nowhere is American education weaker than in its training of economic "consumers." Materials on the problems and possibilities of the purchasing of goods, on the evaluation of sales information and advertising, and on the direct evaluation of articles commonly bought are vitally needed in the revised social studies program. Such material must be presented by social studies instruction closely interrelated with instruction in home economics and the natural sciences.

(9) *The Formation of Opinion:* Somewhat similar to the need for studying the forces influencing one to buy goods is the need for studying on a wider scale the forces which form public opinion—the activities of energetic minorities, of pressure groups, of lobbyists, and the influences of radio and press. Related to this is the analysis of influences impinging on the individual—the pupil—seeking wisely or malevolently to control his outlook.

(10) *Community Analysis:* Much has been written in recent years of the possibility of studying current social structures in the same fashion that anthropology studies earlier structures. Many of the investigations reported above indicate the desirability of equipping pupils with a more objective point of view and a wider knowledge of their own communities and their personal positions in those communities. Not only the political but the economic and sociological aspects of community life should constitute a laboratory for social studies instruction—local and direct studies of housing conditions, of economic groupings, of club and lodge memberships, of recreational activities, and so forth.

(11) *Personal Analysis:* A major failing in American schools generally is their lack of concern with or direct application to the individual. Not only should the social studies present to the pupil the social setting in which he lives; at some point or points within the range of general education the social studies should provide for the study of the individual pupil as he appears to society. A "personal inventory" of one's health attributes, social traits, cultural possibilities, limitations, and achievements is desirable in facilitating the pupil's adjustment to his world. In such analysis the careful use of batteries of tests is wise and the careful correlation of social studies with other subjects, particularly English, is necessary.

(12) *Vocational Analysis and Information:* At some place in the school program, if not elsewhere then in the social studies offering, the pupil's analysis of himself and his community should be concentrated on a direct consideration of his vocational possibilities and expectations. Such vocational information cannot proceed without consideration of the pupil himself and the economic structure of his community.

(13) *The Social Effects of the Rise of Science:* The fundamental alteration in patterns of thinking and acting which has resulted from the rise of the natural sciences to a position of prestige and from the application of science to the common things of life needs deep attention in the schools. History courses should include the development of the sciences within their purview; sociological and civic topics need to be related more frequently to the ordinary "scientific assumptions" of the man in the street.

(14) *The School as a Social Institution:* Partly because it is their immediate milieu and partly because of its importance as a social force, pupils should study the school

more generally and more incisively than they do. In order to utilize schools more effectively pupils should be acquainted with their development, their purposes, their problems, and their achievements.

(15) *The Facilities of Social Intercourse:* A more direct analysis of the qualities of personality which facilitate cooperation between individuals, and of the agencies of cooperative effort, is desirable in the social studies program. Direct analysis of characters and direct study of instances of successful large- or small-group cooperation will lend reality to a curriculum.

(16) *Adult Education:* Many of the difficulties encountered by adults, especially in the early years after schooling, are encountered partly because of unfamiliarity with the possibilities and agencies of adult education. The continuous character of education warrants an intensive study of the "ways and means" of adult education at a time when the pupil is on the verge of leaving school. Such a unit should include material on part-time vocational training, on night schools, public forums, youth programs, community centers, and all the other agencies of the rapidly developing field of adult education and fruitful recreation.

These sixteen topics or areas are presented as, in the light of the studies referred to above, worth consideration in the reconstruction of the social studies curriculum. They represent immediate possibilities in the ever-continuing task of synchronizing social trends and needs with school instruction, of bridging with functional strands the gap between school and society.

Assaying the Learnability of Curriculum Materials

The difficulties involved in determining the accuracy and especially the usefulness of curriculum materials are very great, as has been seen, but the difficulty of determining what is "learnable" in a given situation is even greater. Learnability is a complex of all the elements in the teaching-learning situation, dependent particularly upon elusive qualities of personality and method. Yet the importance of learnability as a criterion for the selection of content is so great that at least a brief résumé of a number of factors affecting the criterion is essential. The factors to be referred to in the following pages are (a) the tangibility of selected content, (b) the relational setting in which content appears, (c) the age-grade level of pupils, (d) individual differences, (e) the interests of pupils, and (f) the activities thru which content is assimilated.

Tangibility of subject content—The extent to which given subject content can be comprehended by pupils is to no small degree dependent upon the tangibility of the material. A high measure of abstraction, such as characterizes many "text" books in the social studies is a barrier to learning; chosen content ought to be sufficiently tangible to be realistic to the pupils for whom it is intended. This calls for a larger amount of "illustrative data" than is now common in social studies courses. Imperialism, as

an abstract social phenomenon, is comprehensible to pupils only as it is typified in actual imperialistic events. "Investment of money abroad" as a cause of imperialism becomes real only as examples of such investment are presented. Moreover, the examples generally ought to precede rather than follow the statement by pupils of the abstraction or generalization. A basic advantage of extensive over intensive reading is that wide reading brings into the orbit of the pupil's consciousness a greater variety of illustrative detail. Any topic or problem or generalization or civic activity such as have been referred to in the studies already listed assumes its potential value only as it is clothed in illustrative tangibility. In all probability the argument that pupils in the elementary school can best study their immediate surroundings is basically only an argument that pupils can best learn that which is tangible.

The relational setting in which subject content appears—But emphasis on the significance of tangible details in determining what we are able to teach must be balanced by equal emphasis that details have educational value only as they are elements in a larger relationship. As has already been pointed out, a detail gains value as it becomes a part of a larger pattern of thought. Knowledge of what Franklin wore when he was received by the King of France may be a detail focused on Franklin's own character, on the culture of the French court, or on the significance of the recognition of the United States by France, and in any such case it is educationally significant and legitimate. We are all familiar with items of fact as "convenient pegs on which to hang a whole bundle of understanding." Only when illustrative details are such pegs, or when specific topics or problems do cohere in a significant integration are they really worth teaching. And only when the relationship which ties items together is revealed to pupils do the details appear in their true light. Moreover, it is only in connection with the relationship that the details are likely to be remembered. The value of such generalized learning has already been discussed in Chapter III of this volume.

In the selection of curriculum content, then, it is necessary first to determine teaching goals which are as abstract as pupils can grasp, and then to build a path to those goals constructed of specific, tangible, factual paving stones all bound together in a cement of illuminating interrelationship. Only when concrete facts or items compose the curriculum is it really comprehensible; only when the specific items are *in focus* on some broader comprehension or insight transcending the raw data themselves, are they educationally defensible or enduring.

The age-grade level of pupils—Obviously, the degree of abstraction which pupils can comprehend is limited by their age level. "Government"

for a small child is personified, for an older child is institutionalized, and for still greater maturity becomes a sociological process or a philosophical or legal abstraction. But differences in innate and acquired ability and differences in background and outlook among pupils make it almost impossible to say definitely what degree of abstraction is learnable at a given grade level. The abstraction of the content taught is only one of a number of factors which determine whether a given group of pupils studying a given topic with a particular teacher will learn effectively. A number of the recent investigations concerning grade placement in the social studies are summarized in Chapter VIII of this volume.

Probably only by trying out various grade placements of topics in a given school system can any final answer be found for the problem. A general tendency in respect to grade placement seems to be to introduce more varied materials lower and lower in the grades, and such a tendency seems warranted so long as pupils continue to learn the material well. Among the curriculum changes which are being tried out on a large scale are: (1) the shift of American history from Grade XII to Grade XI in order to provide for a synthesizing course in contemporary institutions in the last year of the high school; (2) the tendency to shift the material on local civic institutions such as the police and fire departments and recreational agencies from the "social civics" course in Grade VIII or IX into the citizenship work of the elementary school; and (3) the shift of materials on "Old World backgrounds of American history" from Grade VI into Grades IV and V, in order to provide for a direct three-year survey of the "rise of our ways of living" in Grades IV, V, and VI. Only as these and other shifts of curriculum topics are tried out in the schools and as appropriately graded materials for them are made available can decision be made as to the possibilities of grade placement.

Providing for individual differences—Education generally in the United States has become keenly sensitive in recent decades to the significance of individual differences in ability to learn. Most of the provisions for individual differences in social studies classrooms involve primarily method in teaching, but many schools are actively investigating the possibilities of adjustment of the curriculum also to differences among pupils.

In some schools brighter pupils, either in homogeneous sections or as subsections of heterogeneous classes, are given an enriched and enlarged curriculum. Various methods, more or less mechanical, have been suggested by which the enrichment can be carried out; the usual scheme involves two or three "levels" of work, the higher levels requiring (a) more extensive and more difficult reading, (b) addition of topics within the regular units of work, and (c) more intensive training in investigatory and creative

activities in the social studies.[12] It is possible that even more thorogoing differentiation between homogeneous groups of pupils of different abilities should be provided for in the selection of curriculum content. A Philadelphia high school has organized four basically different courses in American history for Grade XI for the four groupings of pupils within the school.[13] At any rate differences in ability to learn, combined with differences in background and outlook, should cause curriculum-makers in specific school systems to consider differentiation of content of required courses as a means of providing for individual differences along with the enrichment of some courses and the provision for some electives.[14]

Analysis of interests of pupils—One need not take the extreme position that interest on the part of pupils is a prerequisite to learning in order to be aware of the tremendous influence of interest in making learning effective as well as pleasant. A factor influencing the curriculum which cannot be ignored is that of pupils' attitudes toward what is taught. Interests are determined by a complex of factors including the teacher and the method used as well as content. Obviously interest is basically affected by individual differences, but perhaps some general conclusions of at least a tentative sort can be drawn about the adaptation of the curriculum to interest.

A basic factor in providing for the recognition of pupils' interests is the flexibility of the curriculum. A hard-and-fast outline of ground-to-be-covered or of experiences-to-be-gained cannot be interesting to a large variety of groups. Within limits, teachers should be allowed freedom in selecting units for a given class and in developing the chosen units. In many progressive courses of study, that in Denver, Colorado, for example, a minimal few units are prescribed for a given grade or course, and an additional list of possible units is suggested from which teachers may select what seems particularly appropriate for a given class. Some alert teachers of civics and modern problems prescribe a small number of units of work for a given class and then allow the pupils themselves to select the additional topics or problems to be studied from a general list of such topics. In the Tappan Junior High School of Ann Arbor, Michigan, the course of study outlines fairly comprehensive units, but the teachers using

[12] See: Johnson, Ruth M. "Providing for Individual Differences." *Historical Outlook* 19: 377-81; December, 1928. ¶ Dowell, Edward S. "An Experiment in Meeting Individual Differences in the Social Science Classes in Athens (Ohio) Senior High School." *Historical Outlook* 20: 87-89; February, 1929. ¶ Taylor, Hazel. "An Experiment in Homogeneous Grouping in Modern European History." *Historical Outlook* 23: 357-61; November, 1932. ¶ Steinberg, Samuel. "The Gifted Child: a Report of What Is Being Done and What Can Be Done for the Superior Child by the Teachers of History and Civics in the New York City High Schools." *Historical Outlook* 24: 314-18, 366-72; October-November, 1933.

[13] Stern, Anna L. "An Attempt To Individualize Instruction in Social Studies at South Philadelphia High School for Girls." *Historical Outlook* 21: 329-32; November, 1930.

[14] For a review of studies concerning class grouping and provision for individual differences see: Rankin, Paul T. "Pupil Classification and Grouping." *Review of Educational Research* 1: 200-230; June, 1931.

the course of study are expected to develop in a given class, not the whole unit, but some one particularly appropriate subtopic falling within the general field of the unit. But adaptation of materials to segregated groups is not enough. In addition there should be adaptation to the individuals composing even a relatively homogeneous group. Flexible and personal assignments, utilization of hobbies, subdivision within class groups, work on individual and committee projects, are desirable. These and other similar devices should be employed by the curriculum-making group to encourage the teacher to adapt a course to a given group's interests and outlooks as much as seems consonant with well-rounded educational training.

In addition to making provision for a flexible curriculum, the curriculum-making group needs to be familiar with the more general interests which seem to animate pupils.[15] Recognizing the limitations on any attempt to discover "natural" interests, the following matters may be worth the curriculum-maker's consideration:

(1) Pupils, particularly in the elementary school, seem basically interested in dramatic adventure. Teachers almost universally report keen interest in such topics as "Life in the Time of the Knights," and "Viking Adventures" or "Discoverers and Explorers" in Grades IV, V, and VI. Adventure is a challenging thing to pupils of all ages but, as pupils grow more mature, the adventure can be increasingly of an intellectual character.

(2) Pupils are apparently normally interested in materials which have direct contact with or application to the current events of their own lives. The curriculum should make provision for consideration of current social affairs in relation to topics and issues of a more permanent sort but particularly for the consideration of the affairs which currently loom large in the lives of the children.

(3) Pupils, particularly those whose education is limited to the years of compulsory schooling, are interested in problems of their vocational outlook. Vocational training increasingly overlaps the work of the social studies on a wide front, and some new approach to the common problems of the fields is likely to be challenging to the pupils affected.

(4) Pupils in the secondary school are much more concerned over and troubled by the problems of personal social adjustment than is revealed by the present curriculum in social studies. Relation of the adolescent to other adolescents, to family, to gang, to social organizations, is of pressing perplexity, and whatever aid in adjustment the social studies program can give will be of distinct value.

The activities of learning—From the point of view of pupils the curriculum is essentially a sequence of experiences, a set of activities. The learning process is an active process not only because human beings are

[15] Some evidence is available concerning the interests of pupils in secondary schools in non-historical topics in the social studies. In 1935, Helen Rhoda Brooks listed the topics commonly taught in modern problems courses, and asked 1059 seniors in high schools of suburban Boston to check the ten in which they were most interested. There were marked differences between high-school groups and between boys and girls, but the ten topics "most interesting" to the total group were: (1) crime and juvenile delinquency, (2) education, (3) public officials, (4) taxation, (5) types of government, (6) immigration, (7) poverty, (8) recreation, (9) the depression, and (10) disarmament. Unpublished study, Harvard Graduate School of Education.

organisms which live by reacting but also because there is an intimate connection between overt muscular activity and the unseen actions of thinking and feeling. For the immature and the less able pupils, particularly, there is no divorce between thought and action. The activities which pupils perform and thru which they learn determine in no small degree the efficiency of their learning and their interest in or antagonism toward the materials taught.

There are listed elsewhere in this volume many of the activities especially suitable for use in social studies classes.[16] The teacher should utilize a variety of the activities in a classroom procedure which would avoid monotony, but unless the activities are focused on legitimate educational goals they are not themselves legitimate. Activity for activity's sake is hardly defensible; activities directly related to the making of real learnings are an essential in an educative process which has regard for the nature of those who learn.

Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the complex problem of selecting content for the social studies program by suggesting three criteria on which selection should be based—accuracy, usefulness, and learnability. Various technics for determining whether content is true, useful, and learnable have been reviewed. In respect to the mechanical technics one is forced to conclude that there is no substitute in curriculum-making for informed and sensitive intelligence on the part of those who make the course of study. Selecting subject content in the social studies is as much an art as is teaching itself, and, like teaching, depends not alone on the general outlook, the hopes and fears, but also the intelligence of the curriculum-maker. But, unlike teaching, the selection of content is a cooperative task calling for the pooling and exchanging of ideas and experiences, and for getting authoritative reactions to the programs outlined. Committee cooperation, and an administrative system which provides a clearing-house for pertinent information are essential factors in the broader task of selecting and articulating the content of the social studies in the communities' schools.

[16] See Chapter XII, "The Teacher and Classroom Technics."

CHAPTER VIII

GRADE PLACEMENT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

EXAMINATION OF COURSES OF STUDY in the social sciences reveals that far more consideration appears to have been given to the selection of objectives, the choice of content, and the development of units than to the determination of optimum grade placement of the experiences provided. Similarly the books and articles dealing with curriculum construction devote but little space to the question. It is true that the earlier influential reports in the field of the social studies made specific recommendations for grade placement, especially in the secondary school. But these recommendations were developed subjectively. More recent proposals, such as that of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, are general in character. Evidently, either satisfactory assignment of the social studies to particular age or grade levels is very difficult of attainment in objective fashion, or it is not considered to be of great importance.

Meaning of Grade Placement

The question of grade placement has two major aspects: that of sequence or vertical articulation, and that of adaptation to the maturity of the learner. By sequence is meant the need for planning the order of experiences so that the learning is most efficient. Altho some learning does occur regardless of the sequence, it seems reasonable to suppose that one sequence may be distinctly more advantageous than another, other things being equal. For example, two sequences may afford very different distributions of repetition or drill. If the findings of educational psychology in other fields apply to the social studies, it is clear that two such sequences may differ greatly in effectiveness.

The other aspect of grade placement—adaptation to the maturity of the learner—is the meaning usually attached to the phrase. By this is meant the allocation of experiences in social sciences to the particular age or grade group which is at the stage of development where the new experience will be most meaningful and educative. Assuming that some understanding of the conditions of colonial life in America is to be included in the program, are the experiences to develop such understanding provided best in the fourth, seventh, or some other grade? Again, in what grade is housing to be considered? Is the Constitution of the United States to be studied in the sixth or the eleventh grade? Such questions seem unanswerable in any definite sense except as they are rendered far more explicit. On the face of it, at least, colonial life may be a theme of educational value in almost any grade, depending on the particular aspects treated and the form of presentation to pupils. Indeed, many if not most of the major themes of the social studies appear to have educational potentialities in

any and all grades if properly presented. One reason why grade placement in the social studies is so difficult is the fact that the body of experiences constituting these studies is not as readily and universally organized in standard patterns and subdivisions as, for example, the content of arithmetic. Nothing in the social studies quite corresponds to the series of skills making up ability to add columns of figures: knowledge of individual combinations, ability to add a seen number to a number in mind, ability to carry, ability to keep place in column, and so forth.

It may be well to call special attention to the distinction between concepts and materials. In general, the first question to be settled is the grade to which will be assigned concepts such as respect for the will of the majority, consideration for minority views, the significance of money as a medium of exchange, or the characteristics of life in mountainous regions. Existing studies show but few objective approaches to this problem. Such work as has been done has dealt with the grade allocation of reading materials, graphs, maps, and time lines. The placement of such materials is important but subordinate to the question of placement of concepts.

It should be noted also that there have been great differences in views as to the size of the unit to be assigned to particular grades. The recommendations made by the Committee of Ten in 1892, the Committee of Seven in 1898, and the Committee of Five in 1911 all related primarily to the assignment of a whole course to a grade, as, civics to the eighth grade or ancient history to the ninth grade. Obviously, any final solution of the problem of grade placement involves the choice of the optimum grade or age at which major concepts in each field shall be presented. Furthermore, the apparent trend toward integrated courses emphasizes the need for grade placement of smaller units in the various fields to be included.

Methods of Determining Grade Placement[1]

Broadly speaking, there are three ways in which the problem of grade placement may be approached: (1) present practise; (2) opinion of individuals or groups; and (3) evidence of ease of learning, child interest, and utility to pupils. In every aspect of public education present practise has been and still is a potent factor. Grade placement is no exception to the rule. But, unless one is thoroly convinced that whatever is is right, one can scarcely accept present practise as an adequate basis for decision in matters of grade placement. The second approach—opinion of individuals or groups—has been used in the social studies very commonly during the last half century, especially in the form of committee recommendations.

[1] For a summary of relevant research, see: Harap, Henry. "Time Allotment and Grade Placement." *Review of Educational Research* 1: 32-36; January, 1931.

TABLE 23.—THE TENTATIVE PLACEMENT OF VARIOUS ELEMENTS OF HOUSING UNDER PRIMARY, INTERMEDIATE, JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL, AND SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL LEVELS [a]

Production goods	Man's Use and Creation of Consumption goods	Human services
	Primary grades	
Study of machines used in building, such as the steam shovel, the cement mixer, the derrick; how we get building materials, etc. Detailed but simple pictures of these.	Kinds of houses; simple, fundamental requirements of good houses; the kinds of building materials used; methods of building; simple factors of location. (Great care must be taken to see that this discussion is kept on a low enough level.)	Study of community helpers—installation of gas and electric service, and water meters; the work of the plumber, carpenter, architect, mason, painter, electrician, paperhanger, mixer, truck driver, lumberman, etc.
	Intermediate grades	
Study of methods of production of housing materials; the machines used in construction.	Materials and methods of construction; costs of materials; kinds and construction of houses most suitable to different needs; furniture and equipment.	Study of cost of services; methods of work; standard of living; wages; number of workmen needed; skill required, etc.
	Junior high school	
Effect of technology upon equipment needed; upon quality and quantity of output; upon cost; organization of building industries; consideration of the producer; aspects of the NRA codes.	A study of some of the elements of home ownership, including costs, rent, types of construction; taxation; deferred payments; budgeting.	Study of vocational occupations; work, training, compensation; conditions of work; number in building trades; privileges and obligations of building trades.
	Senior high school	
Relation between production goods and wages; relation between production and consumption; problems of natural resources and foreign relations; and government subsidies.	Basis of costs; problems of distribution; subsidies for consumption; standard of living; government regulation; mortgages and foreclosures.	The relation of building workers to other workers; effect of technology upon employment of workers; quality of work; compensation; study of such questions as when services are efficient and the relation of capital to labor.

[a] Bruner, Herbert B. *Some Suggestions for the Study of Modern Problems.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. p. 40-41.

The third approach—thru objective evidence of the interest, learnability, and immediate use as far as pupils are concerned—has affected the curriculum greatly in some subject fields but thus far has influenced the social studies program relatively little because scarcely any objective evidence has been gathered.

The three methods proposed relate to the problem of assignment to different grade levels in general. Such allocation is important from the point of view of the school system as a whole. Another problem, however—the question of appropriateness for a particular group of children in a specified grade at a particular time—is of considerable importance to the teacher of that group. The fourth-grade classes, for example, in any rural or city school system differ greatly in maturity and capacity. The teacher of a particular class may need to modify the grade placement of experiences in the light of the needs of his pupils. School systems should use the methods suggested to determine general grade placement, but supplementary studies should be made by every teacher to adapt appropriately for his own class.

Present practise—Chapter V gives the facts regarding present grade placement of social studies materials as discovered by the present Commission thru a questionnaire survey. Perhaps the most striking conclusion from this survey is the extreme diversity in the grade placement of various phases of content, particularly in Grade I thru Grade VIII. Present practise offers too many answers to the question of grade placement to be of much service.

Opinion of individuals and groups—In 1936 it is unnecessary to review the recommendations of the earlier groups of experts which made rather definite recommendations as to the chronological organization of the course in social studies. Suffice it to name the more influential groups—the Committees of Ten, Fifteen, Seven, Five, and Eight. (The recommendations of these groups may be found by consulting the index of Tryon's *The Social Sciences as School Subjects,* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XI.)

In recent years every curriculum committee has needed to formulate some general pattern in accordance with which the pupil experiences will be organized by grade or age. Very rarely, however, is any explanation given of the bases which determined the decision as to pattern. Apparently the plan adopted is the result of consideration in the group responsible and represents majority judgment. Illustrative of such patterns is the following from the elementary school of the University of California at Los Angeles:

> We believe that the centers of interest which comprise the curriculum-core should widen as the interests of the children expand and grow. At the present time, with extreme flexibility, we attempt to meet these expanding interests as follows:

First grade—Studies centering about the home with its relationships to the community, initiated largely thru capitalizing the interests of the children in the agencies of transportation—"moving things."

Second grade—Continuation of home and community life of first grade, extending relationships further. Intensification and deepening of interests in where we obtain our milk, our bread, our lumber, and the like—leading from the immediate environment into the outlying areas.

Third grade—Studies of our relationships with people of other countries, usually growing out of the children's natural interests in the boats and shipping of their own harbor. Studies of primitive civilizations where life, by contrast to ours, is simple.

Fourth grade—Studies centering about our own state, present and past; beginning with the lives and industries of the people living here at the present time, leading into studies which will give appreciation and understanding of the people from other lands who have influenced the development of the state and locality, terminating with studies which reveal to the children how the state which they know and see today has grown out of its past.

Fifth grade—Studies leading into appreciation and understanding of our nation, present and past.

Sixth grade—Studies showing our relationship to the world. Studies centering around the development of civilization.[2]

The tendency in recent years to organize instruction around major topics like housing or transportation has raised the question of the particular aspects of the topic to be treated in any particular grade, since the subject of housing, for example, may be used in any grade. Bruner's proposal for tentative placement of the elements of housing, as shown in Table 23, illustrates one possible solution of the problem.

Judd has suggested the need to organize history with a due regard for the intellectual demands made on the student.[3] He proposed the following series: first stage, ability to comprehend a coherent narrative of successive events without much explanation; second stage, ability to compare and associate, to understand the physical facts which influence history; third stage, mastery of evidences upon which history is based, a critical evaluation of the original sources; fourth stage, ability to make a critical comparison of the interpretations made by different authorities.

The Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association formulated the principles of organization of the materials of instruction and made the following statement concerning the application of these principles:

In order that the teacher or administrator may have a more concrete picture of the application of these broad principles, the Commission, without special or exclusive endorsement, suggests the following plan of organization as sound and relevant and illustrative of what might be attempted in any system of schools embracing the years of elementary and secondary education:

[2] Waddell, Charles W.; Seeds, Corinne A.; and White, Natalie. *Major Units in the Social Studies for the Intermediate Grades.* New York: John Day Co., 1932. p. 16.

[3] Judd, Charles H. *Psychology of High-School Subjects.* Boston: Ginn and Co., 1915. p. 456-57.

(a) In the elementary school major attention would be devoted to a study of the making of the community and the nation, altho materials bearing on the development of world society and culture would by no means be excluded. The program would begin with the neighborhood in which the child lives. Starting from a first-hand study of the life, institutions, and geography of the community, it would proceed to an examination of social changes taking place in the locality, of the history of the place, of the civilization of the Indian in the same area, of the contrasting elements of European and Indian culture and of early and later American culture. Emphasis would be placed thruout on actual participation in the social activities of school and neighborhood, and every part or phase of the program would begin and end in the contemporary and surrounding community which the child knows directly. Thus the pupil would develop an active interest in the fortunes of society and acquire a stock of ideas which would enable him to go beyond the immediate in time and space. He would then be led by natural connections—genetic and functional—to the study of the making of the region and the nation. Thru such an organization of materials the elementary school would acquaint the child as fully as possible with the evolution of American culture—local and national—and to some extent with the origins of American culture in the Western world.

(b) In the secondary school the central theme would be the development of mankind and the evolution of human culture, with the emphases suggested elsewhere in this chapter and with constant reference to the present and to American civilization. This program might culminate in the study, thru concrete and living materials, of regional geography, of comparative economics, government, and cultural sociology, of the major movements in social thought and action in the modern world, of the most recent developments on the international stage—a study in which the experience, the knowledge, and the thought of all the preceding years would be brought to bear, by means of comparison and contrast, upon the emerging problems, tensions, and aspirations, the evolving social programs and philosophies of mankind and of the American people in their regional and world setting. Also special attention would be given in the secondary school to the reading of historical and social literature, including newspapers and magazines, great historic documents, classics of social thought, and to the achievement of familiarity with the methods and instruments of inquiry in the social sciences, with historical criticism, analysis, verification, and authentication. This program should embrace both the junior and senior divisions of the secondary school and reach into the years of the junior college.[4]

The recommendations of national committees with reference to grade placement have evidently become much less specific and definite, as judged by the comparison between the report of the Committee of Seven in 1898 and the report of the Commission on the Social Studies in 1934. The change may be due in part to the growing trend toward some type of integrated social studies program with the attendant growth in complexity of the area represented at each grade level. Another factor may be the growing realization that the allocation of specific experiences to particular grades calls for precise knowledge of the characteristics of pupils in those grades rather than armchair philosophizing and committee discussion. Yet there

[4] American Historical Association. Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 59-62.

is need for interpretation, especially by groups who represent different educational interests, of the data secured about children's interests, activities, and abilities in relation to objectives that seem important in the social studies. In reality, the approaches of expert opinion and objective facts complement each other.

Despite the fact that national committees seem loath to commit themselves definitely as to grade placement, individual school systems make definite decisions concerning the subject. No doubt this fact is due largely to the necessity for action confronting each state or city curriculum committee. Something must be taught in each grade. Vague generalizations are of no avail. All that can be suggested is that a greater attempt be made to take into consideration such facts as may be available concerning the characteristics and needs at each grade level.

Objective Evidence on Grade Placement

In Chapter VII, the prime criteria for the selection of content were given as accuracy, usefulness, and learnability. Usefulness, when applied to curriculum building, refers chiefly tho not exclusively to usefulness in the adult world. Accuracy is tremendously important, but its value as a criterion comes in the checking for precision of content which is selected basically for its usefulness and learnability. Obviously, material will not be inserted in the curriculum simply because it is true, for there are billions of true statements, and not all can be included.

As pointed out in Chapter VII, the assignment of material to particular grades depends primarily on its learnability. This in turn depends on three basic principles: child interest, utility to pupils, and ease of learning (or its converse, difficulty). Other things being equal, content is to be assigned to the grade where child interest in it is greatest, where pupils can make immediate use of their learning, and where effort will be rewarded by a reasonable degree of success in learning. Each of these approaches has been used to some degree, both in the social studies and in other branches of the curriculum.

Child interest—Concepts and materials may be assigned to grades on the basis of child interest by either of two methods: the discovery of child interests at each grade in the field under consideration, and the trial of actual materials in several different grades to discover the point of greatest interest. In general, both methods will be found to be of value. The former gives leads as to the concepts and types of material that will be most significant to pupils in a particular grade; the latter supplies a means of grade placement of instructional materials after they have been prepared.

Applications of the former procedure seem to be infrequent in the social studies.[5] Craig's study [6] in natural science is an illustration of evaluating objectives thru a study of questions raised by children in the field of science. He asked pupils in each grade to list the questions in which they were interested, using the following directions:

> We need your help in deciding what should be taught in science in the elementary school. We know that you frequently want to understand something that science can explain to you. Sometimes you have just wondered and never learned anything about it. Possibly you have studied it out for yourselves with the help of toys, books, or older people. We want to know the questions in science and nature study which have interested you the most and which you desire to have explained. Please write these down on this sheet of paper.[7]

After classifying the questions under the objectives and subdivisions that had been formulated, Craig was able to determine the general organization for lower and upper grades on the basis of the findings. The procedure he used apparently would have value in the social studies as well.

After the objectives of a course have been adopted and the materials tried out, information may be secured concerning pupil interest in them that may help in determining proper grade placement. Thus Blanchard [8] secured from 10,000 pupils in Grade VI thru Grade VIII their judgment as to the five gymnasium activities they liked best and the five they liked least. The survey revealed the waxing and waning of interest in various activities in the grades studied and made possible a readjustment of the activities in the light of pupil interest.

Utility to pupils—Immediate usefulness to pupils has not been studied much in determining the grade placement of the social studies. Perhaps the clearest instance of this approach to grade placement is in the field of spelling. Jones [9] studied 75,000 themes written by children in Grade II thru Grade VIII, and listed the words used by the lowest grade in which at least 2 percent of the pupils used them. Tidyman [10] made a similar study of 50,000 themes in Grade III thru Grade IX. The implication from both studies is that words should be studied in the grade where they are used first.

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[5] Young, "Children's Travel Interests." *Studies in Education* 2: 1902. ¶ Gibbs, David. "The Pedagogy of Geography." *Pedagogical Seminary* 14: 39-100; March, 1907. ¶ Ridgely, Douglas C. *A Study of Children's Learning About Places.* Worcester, Mass.: Clark University Press, 1928. 142 p.

[6] Craig, Gerald S. *Certain Techniques Used in Developing a Course of Study in Science for the Horace Mann Elementary School.* Contributions to Education, No. 276. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 73 p.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 29.

[8] Blanchard, Vaughan S. "An Analysis of the Likes and Dislikes of Boys and Girls in Health Education Activities, Grades Five, Six, Seven, and Eight in the Detroit Public Schools." *American Physical Education Research Quarterly* 4: 238-45; March, 1933.

[9] Jones, Wallace Franklin. *Concrete Investigation of the Material of English Spelling.* Vermillion: University of South Dakota, 1913. 29 p.

[10] Tidyman, Willard F. *Survey of Writing Vocabularies of Public School Children in Connecticut.* U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Teacher's Leaflet No. 15. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1921. 18 p.

Ease of learning—The proportion of pupils who can perform successfully any particular activity is important information in determining its grade placement. There is a question, however, concerning the decision as to the percentage of success which signifies proper grade placement. Clearly if 0 percent of the children are successful after teaching, the activity is too difficult for the grade. If 100 percent of the children are successful, the activity is too easy for the grade and should be assigned to a lower grade. Under an ideal, individualized procedure, each pupil would enter upon a new learning task at the earliest time when he could achieve mastery in a reasonable period of application. Since classes are not homogeneous, some figure less than 100 percent probably represents the optimum grade placement. Mathews [11] raises the question but does not answer it finally. He suggests 50 percent, 67 percent, and 75 percent, and presents data for these three points.

Meltzer [12] studied the development in the minds of children of some concepts whose understanding makes some important situations of contemporary life more intelligible. Understanding of 31 concepts was tested by interviewing over 300 pupils from Grade IV thru Grade XII. He found a steady gain from grade to grade (perfect score—248; mean—Grade V, 27.4; Grade IX, 86.0; Grade XII, 138.9) but the pupils tested showed wrong meaning or no understanding concerning about half of the concepts tested. It should be noted, however, that Meltzer made no attempt to develop understanding of the concepts; he only tested the development under existing conditions.

Lacey [13] studied the social concepts of 450 children in the first three grades by means of tests based on pictures. She found that these children had little conception of such abstract terms as "thrift," "patriotism," "industry," and "courtesy." She found also that concepts involving personal relations are more difficult than those involving objects.

Mathews [14] investigated children's understanding of specific instructional materials at different grade levels from the fourth to the twelfth. The materials used were three types of reading: episodes, descriptions and expositions, and newspaper articles; five kinds of charts and graphs: bar graphs, line graphs, circular graphs, time lines, and pictograms; and maps. He tested comprehension by questions with objective answers. He found that ability to understand the selections used increases gradually from the fourth to the twelfth grade. He discovered also that the episodes were

[11] Mathews, C. O. *The Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials in the Social Studies.* Contributions to Education, No. 241. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 23-42.
[12] Meltzer, Hyman. *Children's Social Concepts; a Study of Their Nature and Development.* Contributions to Education, No. 192. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. 91 p.
[13] Lacey, Joy Muchmore. *Social Studies Concepts of Children in the First Three Grades.* Contributions to Education, No. 548. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 89 p.
[14] Mathews, C. O., *op. cit.*, 152 p.

better comprehended than the other types of reading material, and that circular graphs were most readily understood, bar graphs next, and line graphs least easily understood. For each of his samples, he suggests the proper grade placement, assuming 50, 67, or 75 percent comprehension as the standard of difficulty. He concludes that the types of materials in the social studies are placed from one to three grades too low.

Thomas [15] tested the ability of 355 children in Grade IV thru Grade VII to read different kinds of graphs. She found that above the fourth grade children can read graphs of simple types if the graphs are adapted to their attainments in the tool subjects. Her seventh-grade pupils averaged 75 percent of correct responses. She concluded that "with the proper instruction and explanation, children in the seventh grade can interpret all simple graphs." Her findings concerning the greater difficulty of line graphs supported those of Mathews.

Aitchison [16] tested the understanding of the zones possessed by 1110 pupils in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades and 860 college students. The widespread and lasting misconceptions which appeared led him to urge the elimination of all mention of zones from fourth- and fifth-grade geography and substitution of the terms "low, middle, and high latitudes."

Thorp [17] investigated the ability of pupils to use various geographic tools, including globes, maps of different types, and graphs. She tested regular classes in Grade IV thru Grade VIII and also an experimental sixth-grade class which had received intensive drill in the use of the tools. Altho the general results were not very satisfactory from her point of view, the experimental class showed considerable power and she concluded that the work was easily within the comprehension of the average sixth grade. This interpretation raises the question as to the amount of time to be devoted to developing such abilities. Presumably almost any ability can be developed if time enough is given the task. The proper grade placement of any item must always take into consideration other contestants for inclusion in the curriculum. Thorp suggests Table 24 for grade placement of geography tools, based on the findings of her study.

Shaffer [18] studied the ability of pupils in Grade IV thru Grade XII to interpret cartoons. He concluded (1) that such interpretation improves

[15] Thomas, Katheryne Colvin. "The Ability of Children To Interpret Graphs," in *The Teaching of Geography*, Thirty-Second Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1933. p. 492-94.

[16] Aitchison, Alison E. " 'Torrid, Temperate, and Frigid Zones'—Sources of Error in Children's Thinking," in *The Teaching of Geography*, Thirty-Second Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1933. p. 483-85.

[17] Thorp, Mary T. "Studies of the Ability of Pupils in Grades Four to Eight To Use Geographic Tools," in *The Teaching of Geography*, Thirty-Second Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1933. p. 494-506.

[18] Shaffer, Laurance F. *Children's Interpretations of Cartoons; a Study of the Nature and Development of the Ability To Interpret Symbolic Drawings.* Contributions to Education, No. 429. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. 73 p.

TABLE 24.—SUGGESTED GRADE PLACEMENT OF GEOGRAPHY TOOLS [a]

I, Incidental; T, Teach the usage; D, Drill on the usage

Tool	Grade									
	IV B	IV A	V B	V A	VI B	VI A	VII B	VII A	VIII B	VIII A
I. Globe study:										
General location	I	T	T	D	D					
Latitude		I	T	T	T	D	D	D		
Longitude		I	T	T	T	D	D	D		
Continents—oceans	I	T	T	T	D	D				
II. Map reading:										
Route-sketching (direction and scale)		I	I	T	T	D				
Legend-reading	I	I	T	T	T	D	D			
Measurements to scale			I	I	T	T	D			
III. Picture study:										
Observation	T	T	D	D	D					
Interpretation	I	I	T	T	T	D				
IV. Climatic elements:										
Location of wind belts		I	I	T	T	T	T	D	D	
Areas of rain		I	I	T	T	T	D	D		
Isotherm-making			I	I	T	T	T	T	D	D
Isotherm-reading and interpretation			I	I	I	T	T	T	D	D
V. Diagram study and use:										
Rainfall against mountain		I	I	T	T	D				
Delta lands	I	I	T	T	D	D				
Oasis	I	T	T	D	D	D				
Original, free sketching	I	I	I	T	T	T	D	D	D	D
VI. Interpretation of life:										
Responses from {diagrams / maps}				I	T	T	T	T	D	D
VII. Index:										
Pronunciation	T	T	T	T	D	D	D			
General use	I	I	T	T	D	D	D			
VIII. Appendix:										
Table-making		I	I	T	T	D	D	D	D	
Table-reading		I	I	T	T	T	D	D	D	
Statistical computation										
IX. Graphs:										
Picture graph	I	T	T	D	D	D				
Broken-line-bar: reading		I	I	T	T	D	D	D	D	
Graph interpretation		I	I	I	T	T	T	D	D	
Making simple graphs		I	T	T	D	D	D			
Making circle graphs					I	I	T	T	D	D
Numerical study in graphs						I	I	T	T	T

[a] Thorp, Mary T. "Studies of the Ability of Pupils in Grades Four to Eight To Use Geographic Tools," in *The Teaching of Geography*, Thirty-Second Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1933, p. 506.

markedly between ages twelve and fifteen and (2) that cartoons are desirable curriculum material for the junior high school.

Summary

Present practise and expert opinion are undoubtedly the major factors determining the placement of an item in a particular grade in most school systems. Indeed, the factual evidence for placement of social studies items in one grade rather than another is pitifully meager and inadequate. Yet assignment to correspond with present general practise can scarcely be defended. The only alternative left is opinion, as expert as possible. Judgments based on group opinion probably can be improved by securing opinions concerning the degree of pupil interest, the likelihood of immediate utility to the pupil, and the probable proportion of pupils who can attain the desired outcomes in a reasonable period of time. These are the major factors that should influence the decision.

The evidence presented does hold out some possibilities of direct usefulness in the gradation of teaching materials. Clearly the reading difficulty of most social studies materials is too great for the grades for which planned. Some information is available also regarding the proper grading of certain other skills, including the interpretation of cartoons, graphs, and maps.

It is perhaps significant that objective studies have been addressed largely if not entirely to the question of adapting the teaching to the maturity of the learner. Relatively little appears to have been done regarding the problem of optimum sequence in learning the social studies.

It should be noted also that little attention appears to have been given thru objective study to another problem that has become increasingly significant in recent years. That is the question of the particular aspect of major subjects that should be dealt with in particular grades. For example, there seem to be no objective studies that indicate just what should differentiate the treatment of housing in the third grade from the treatment in the seventh grade or in the eleventh grade. At the present time topics like housing appear thruout the grades. What are the distinctive functions to be served in each grade where it appears? A subjective answer is given earlier in this chapter in Table 23.

Decision as to optimum grade placement will always involve both the collection of objective evidence and its interpretation by competent persons. The facts are meaningless apart from the other elements in the situation; experts are needed to interpret the facts, relate them to the whole situation, and arrive at judgments that will affect practise favorably. Similarly the experts cannot work without facts; they need to base their recommendations on experience that includes as much objective evidence as possible.

Perhaps the most practicable procedure in grade placement is the experimental trial of units at various grade levels. This approach is available in every school system. Teachers who try out a unit in several different grades for several terms can readily discover where it is most appropriate.

Another practical suggestion is that units be used interchangeably in adjacent grades, since there is no convincing evidence for fine discrimination in grade placement. This suggestion is particularly important in rural schools and in the large number of small schools in which a teacher has an entire grade or two entire grades. In such schools a one- or two-year cycle of units may well be used with all the pupils in the room. Until there is much greater certainty than at present regarding optimum grade placement, general observation would indicate that the precise order of a series of experiences for one pupil or a group of pupils within a grade or two is relatively inconsequential.

CHAPTER IX

THE INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS are so varied and complex that they cannot be fully perceived in all their ramifications in toto. In gaining an understanding of society it becomes necessary to select certain phases or problems for intensive study and analysis at a particular time. The report of the American Historical Association has pointed out: "Every topic of instruction in the social sciences, if concerned with actuality, contains at least six elements or aspects: location in physically conditioned space, occurrence at some point in time, action by human beings, relationship to other social happenings (economic, political, and cultural), relationship to other ideas, and application to life situations. The seemingly most simple subject is in fact extremely complex and capable of comparatively infinite development." [1]

The particular purpose of this chapter is to bring to the attention of the superintendent and those responsible for the development of the social studies curriculum some of the most significant aspects of the problem of the organization of materials in the social studies courses of study, and to give brief illustrations of some of the best current practises.

Deciding upon the Plan of Organization

Before making or reconstructing a social studies program it will be necessary for the superintendent and his staff to decide which plan, in view of the local conditions, will probably most effectively facilitate learning on the part of the pupils.

Should history, geography, and civics be organized as separate and isolated subjects, or merged into an integrated curriculum in which all lines of demarcation are obliterated and the identity of any subject is made completely indistinguishable? If neither of these extreme positions is adopted, how far should one go in correlating materials within the social studies field, or in relating the social studies with other subjects in the curriculum, so as to help pupils to get a realistic picture of human relationships.

Altho there is as yet a lack of objective data relative to the merits of the different plans of organization, such administrative and instructional factors as the following should be considered by the superintendent and the teachers in arriving at a decision:

[1] American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 57.

(1) Are the teachers familiar with the adopted plan and adequately prepared to give it a fair trial?

(2) Are the patrons of the school and the public in general likely to assume a sympathetic attitude toward the proposed innovations?

(3) Are the principals and supervisors thoroly familiar with the changes and competent to direct the new program?

(4) Are appropriate building facilities and proper equipment and furnishings provided?

(5) Are suitable textbooks and adequate instructional supplies available?

(6) Can the proposed plan be administered in a departmental school, platoon school, or any other type of school organization now in operation in the local school system?

(7) Does the proposed plan provide a comprehensive study of the social studies as a whole and at the same time insure a proper emphasis of each aspect of the social studies?

(8) Does the plan present human relationships in the most natural and realistic manner?

(9) Does the plan promote horizontal articulation of experiences in the different subjects at each grade level?

(10) Does the plan demand constant reorganization of materials by the pupils and insure the consideration of all elements or aspects of the topic of instruction mentioned above?

(11) Does the plan afford the teacher the greatest possible freedom in adapting the made-in-advance curriculum to the needs and interests of pupils in particular classroom situations?

Types of Organization in the Social Studies

For purposes of discussion the plans of organization used in connection with the social studies may be classified into the following three types:

(1) Separate subject courses in geography, history, civics, economics, sociology, and other social studies.

(2) General social science courses with the materials from the different fields organized in a definite relationship to the social studies as a whole.

(3) An integrated curriculum in which the social studies are organized with or without the preservation of their identity, in a definite relationship to the *entire* curriculum.

Other systems of classification [2] have been proposed, but the above three groups will suffice for our present purposes. Under each of the three major types one may find many variations in administrative procedure. The

[2] Tryon, Rolla M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XI. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935. p. 456-81. See also Chapter XIV, p. 352, of this yearbook.

three major and certain minor types are illustrated graphically in Figure II and discussed in the next section. As a basis for evaluating the examples the reader is referred to the questions raised in the immediately preceding section.

Separate Subject Courses

Parallel Courses

In the past the prevailing practise has been to teach history, geography, and civics as separate subjects. In many cases they are still administered as parallel courses—taught simultaneously but independent of each other. In such cases pupils are assigned to a geography class at one period of the day and to a history class at another period. Frequently in order to relieve the congestion in the daily program, geography classes are scheduled three days each week and history the other two days. Courses of study organized on this plan seldom point out in detail the opportunities for correlation, but this problem was less vital at the time the plan was most popular because of the nature of the content of the subjects. History was a record of political and military events; geography was a study of the physical features of the earth; and civics was a study of the form of civil government. Since these subjects had little in common, the opportunities for correlation of materials were limited. During the past two decades, these subjects have undergone radical changes. The scope of each has been broadened and there has been a great shift in emphasis. In history more attention is given to the interpretation of the social, economic, and cultural phases of life. In geography the physical environment is considered in relation to activities of people in their economic, social, and political relationships. Problems of social and economic organization are necessarily included in civics because of their direct connection with government. These trends have resulted in considerable overlapping of materials in the courses and consequently a great loss of time because of needless repetitions especially if the subjects are taught by different teachers.

Duplications and overlappings are not necessarily inherent in this plan of organization. Much depends upon the manner in which the materials in the curriculum are developed. If the courses in history and geography are planned simultaneously with a definite effort to point out their interrelationships, teachers will find many opportunities to illustrate the interaction of man and his physical environment. Table 25 illustrates how Baltimore has attempted to accomplish this objective.

Baltimore—The history and geography are organized on the so-called single cycle arrangement. The history is organized on a strictly chronological basis proceeding from ancient to modern times in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. The course in geography proceeds from the study of typical

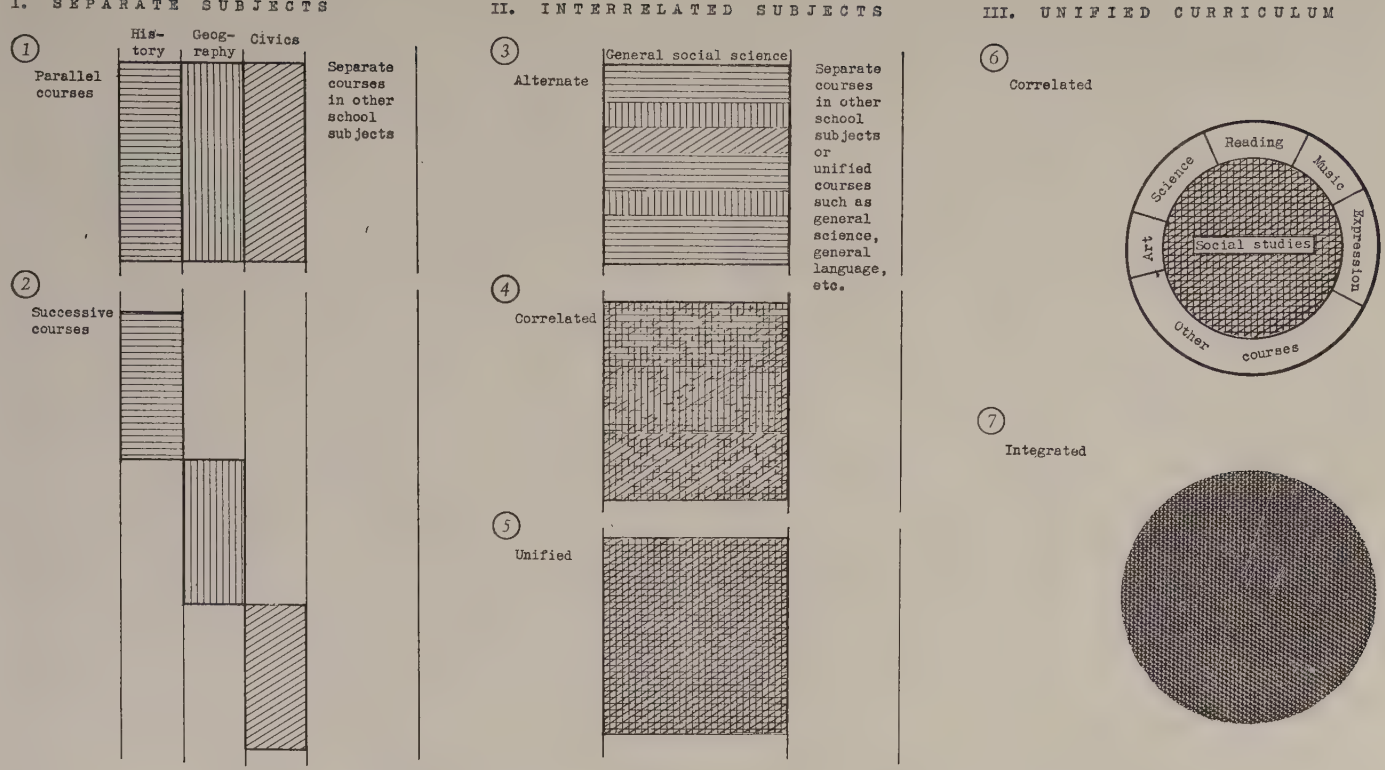

FIGURE II.—GENERAL PLANS OF ORGANIZING THE SOCIAL STUDIES AND OF RELATING THEM TO THE CURRICULUM AS A WHOLE

regions of the world in the fourth grade in which simple direct relationships are observed to the study of regions involving successively more complex relationships in the fifth and sixth grades.

In Baltimore's fourth grade (Table 25) both the history and geography relate to the life of people in Europe and countries adjacent to the Mediterranean. In the fifth grade, the history relates to the discovery and settlement of the New World and the geography pertains to the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Central America. In the sixth grade, however, the

TABLE 25.—RELATION OF HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY UNITS—BALTIMORE [a]

Course of study in history	*Course of study in geography*
4B	4B
I. How the ancient peoples who lived around the Mediterranean gave the world its first scholars, traders, and adventurers.	I. How people make their work, play, and customs fit the country in which they live.
A. How the first great civilizations began in the river valleys of the East.	A. How people live in a great desert region.
B. How the Phoenicians became the carriers of civilization.	B. How people live in a great jungle region.
C. How the Greeks became teachers of the Mediterranean world.	C. How people live in the Mediterranean lands.
D. How Rome spread learning thruout the known world.	D. How the Swiss people live in their land of mountains.
4A	4A
II. How the early tribes of Central Europe developed and gave to the world a new type of civilization.	E. How the Dutch live in a lowland by the sea.
A. How the barbarians changed life in Europe.	F. How the Norwegians live in their mountainous land by the sea.
B. How great leaders improved ways of living in Europe.	G. How people farthest north and south live.
C. How people lived during the Middle Ages.	H. How world folks live differently because of differences in the distance of their lands from the equator. (A summary unit.)

[a] Baltimore. *History Course of Study for Grades Four, Five, and Six.* Baltimore, Md.: Department of Education, 1931. p. 21. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent David E. Weglein.

pupils study the history of the United States while they are studying the geography of Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America. Obviously, those who planned these courses of study did not deem it essential that the geography and history of a country be studied simultaneously, nor was it assumed that the geography of a country should be studied first so as to provide a background for the study of its history, or vice versa.

An examination of the course of study in detail will convince one, however, that there has been a definite effort to point out significant relationships between the two subjects even tho they are administered separately. For example, the specific outcomes in the history unit reflect very definitely the environmental factors which affected the life of the Egyptians, while in the geography unit the life in Egypt in the past and, especially, our interest in the cultural contributions of Egypt to world life today, are particularly emphasized. A brief excerpt from these two courses of study relating to Egypt will illustrate how they have been developed:

HISTORY UNITS (GRADE 4B)—BALTIMORE[3]

I. How the ancient peoples who lived around the Mediterranean gave the world its first scholars, traders, and adventurers.

A. How the first great civilizations began in the river valleys of the East.

Specific Objectives

1. To know that the first great civilizations began in the Tigris-Euphrates and Nile River valleys in the lands of Egypt and Babylonia, while Europe and America were still peopled by savages.
2. To understand that the Nile River made farming possible in Egypt, and thus made the country the "cradle of civilization."
3. To appreciate the fact that archaeologists and translators have helped us learn of this great civilization.
4. To appreciate the fact that our life today is more learned, efficient, and prosperous because of the contributions of the first civilizations.

Content

Outline of Content	Suggested Problems
1. How wandering tribes became great and powerful nations.	Why did the wanderers find the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates valleys good places in which to settle?
a. Ancient Egypt.	
(1) Settlement in the Nile valley.	
(2) Development of farming along the Nile.	
(a) The way farming was carried on.	
(b) The tools used.	
(c) The crops raised.	

[3] Baltimore. *History Course of Study for Grades Four, Five, and Six.* Baltimore, Md.: Department of Education, 1931. p. 105-109. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent David E. Weglein.

Outline of Content	Suggested Problems
(3) Growth of the government. (a) From family, tribe, clan, and city-state to nation. (b) By work of great pharaohs—Menes, Cheops, Rameses.	
(4) Life of the Egyptians. (a) Classes of people—slaves, peasants, nobles. (b) Homes. (1) Mud huts for peasants. (2) Great estates for wealthy. (c) Dress. (d) Occupations. (e) Religious beliefs. (1) Worship of gods of nature—Ra, Osiris, and others. (2) Ideas of life after death—the pyramids. (f) Education. (g) Amusements.	How did the ancient Egyptians live?
b. Babylonia. (1) Settlement in the Tigris-Euphrates River valleys.	How did life in Babylonia compare with life in Egypt?
(2) Life of the Babylonians. (Sub-items omitted here.)	
2. How we learned the story of these early nations. (Sub-items omitted here.)	How do we know the story of the ancient people?
3. How the things these early people did have helped us today.	
a. Contributions of the Egyptians. (1) Writing and writing materials—hieroglyphics, papyrus. (2) The calendar—year of 365¼ days. (3) Lasting examples of sculpture, architecture, and paintings. (4) The beginning of arithmetic, medicine, and the study of the heavens. (5) Farm tools and processes—the plow, irrigation. (6) Glass. (7) Weaving of fine linen. (8) Fine ornaments of silver, gold, copper, and bronze. (9) Engineering.	What did these early people give to our civilized world?

Outline of Content	Suggested Problems
b. Contributions of the Babylonians.	
(1) The division of the year—week, hour, minute, second.	
(2) Telling time by the water-clock and sundial.	
(3) Decimal system of notation.	
(4) A system of weights and measures.	
(5) The oldest written code of laws.	

(Section 3 should be developed concretely in connection with Sections 1 and 2, and should be summarized as the last part of the unit.)

Suggested Activities

1. Making miniature reproductions of farms. Show similarity of dress, products, implements, farming methods, and farm life in ancient Egypt and modern Egypt. Show comparison between Egyptian farm life (in ancient and modern times) and farm life in Maryland today.

2. Making frieze, wall posters, moving pictures, etc.
   Possible subjects:
   Egypt in the days of the pharaohs.
   Life in ancient Egypt.
   Occupations and amusements of the Egyptians.
   Beliefs of the early Egyptians.

3. Reproducing in clay, cardboard, wood—monuments and mummies, writing tablets, scrolls, farming implements, temples, palaces, ships of old Egypt.

4. Building a museum decorated with Egyptian designs to contain the articles mentioned above in (3), and a collection or exhibit of stamps and curios brought to class by children.

5. Making a book to be used as:
   A guide book to the museum (see activity 4).
   A record of class work on this topic.
   A story book of any phase of ancient Egyptian life that the children may wish to write.
   An advertisement for a trip to Egypt to see relics of the days of the pharaohs.

6. Dressing dolls to represent people of ancient and modern Egypt.

7. Making models of Egyptian pottery, showing Egyptian designs.

8. Producing dramatizations of life in early Egypt.

9. Visiting Baltimore Museum of Art to see collections of Egyptian art. (A talk to the children by the director can be arranged before visiting the museum. The museum owns a number of lantern slides on Egyptian art that can be shown.)

10. Making map representations of the lands of the Egyptians and the Babylonians.

Suggested Integrations with Other Subjects

Geography

Using the knowledge gained from the geography outline to get an understanding of the country and surroundings in which these Egyptians lived. (See Geography Course of Study—4B, Unit I-A, "How People Live in a Great Desert Region.")

In this section, suggestions are made not only for integrations with geography but for relating social studies with constructive English, reading and literature, arithmetic, art, and music. Since the illustration is introduced primarily to show relationships with other social studies subjects, only the suggestions relating to geography are quoted in the following section:

GEOGRAPHY UNITS (GRADE 4B)—BALTIMORE[4]

I. How people make their work, play, and customs fit the country in which they live.
A. How people live in a great desert region.

Specific Objectives

Major Understanding

To lead the child to know that in fitting their ways of living to the land of little rainfall, much sunshine, hot days and cool nights, sparse vegetation, few rivers and occasional fertile oases, the people of the desert have become wanderers, living in tents, wearing loose clothing, traveling by caravan, and making a living by herding sheep and goats, and by trading in oases towns; or have settled as farmers in the larger oases.

Basic Skills

To lead the child to develop the ability:

1. *To read* pictures, maps, charts, and written material, using them as basic sources of information to such an extent that ways of living in the desert and its oases in relation to the natural features of these regions are understood.
2. *To express* thru pictures, maps, charts, and written material the relationships discovered between ways of living and the kinds of lands in which these people live.

Content

Pictures

The use of pictures constitutes a rich store of information which will contribute to an understanding of the geographic unit being studied. Care must be taken, however, that the pictures used be truly geographic; that is, they must accurately represent kinds of work and ways of living in relation to the natural factors of the country.

It is important, therefore, that the fourth-grade teacher, beginning with this first unit of the year, draw heavily upon well-chosen pictures as sources of information. Additional care should also be taken that when children express geographic information thru their own pictures the facts represented should always express relationships. For example: a drawing of a palm tree is not geographic, but a representation of men gathering dates from a palm tree in an oasis is essentially geographic.

[4] Baltimore. *Geography Course of Study for Grades Four, Five, and Six.* Baltimore, Md.: Department of Education, 1931. p. 120-24. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent David E. Weglein.

Maps

Map reading is one of the major understandings in the study of geography. Maps should be used as definite sources of information from which children can read and interpret as readily as they are able to do so from the printed page. It is essential, therefore, that correct map skills, which include both reading and expressing information thru symbols, be initiated accurately and simply at the beginning of fourth-grade geography.

Introduction to map reading and representation, however, should be given only when it can contribute to the geographic understanding of the unit studied. This means that map skills and understandings should develop as the unit itself develops and should progress from simple representations of small areas to larger and more abstract ideas.

Likewise, map symbols should be introduced only as the need is felt. Such symbols in connection with the study of the desert and the Nile would be: river source and mouth, city, coastline, sea, delta, strait, etc.

Detailed suggestions for such treatment may be found in current textbooks.

Outline of Content	Suggested Problems
1. Why the people of the desert are wanderers.	How have the desert people fitted their lives to their land?
a. Effects of little rainfall and the sun high overhead for a long time.	
(1) Scarcity of water for drinking and irrigation.	
(2) Scarcity of vegetation.	
b. How the wanderers of the desert, the nomads, live.	
(1) Use of sheep and goats for food—cheese, milk, and meat.	
(2) Use of loose clothing and full burnoose as protection against the hot days and cold nights.	
(3) Use of tents, which may be moved easily for shelter.	
(4) Use of camels, which can stand the hardships of the desert, as means of transportation for people and their goods.	
(5) Travel in groups or caravans, for protection against the dangers of the desert.	
(6) Trading among caravans and in oases towns.	
2. Why some of the people are oases dwellers. (Sub-items omitted here.)	
3. Why the people of Egypt have become farmers.	Why have so many people settled in the lands around the Nile?
a. The help of the Nile in making farming possible.	
(1) Building of fertile delta lands at its mouth.	
(2) Covering the nearby plains with rich soil at flood time.	
(3) Providing water for irrigating lands.	
(a) Methods used in irrigating.	
(b) Storing water of the Nile in the Assuan Dam.	
(4) Supplying a highway for trade.	

Outline of Content	Suggested Problems
b. Farming activities carried on. (1) Raising of wheat, rice, and other grains. (2) Cultivation of fruits, vegetables, and sugar cane. (3) Work in connection with producing cotton of fine quality.	
4. Why people from all countries are interested in Egypt.	Why do people visit Egypt?
a. Visiting temples and tombs and other points of interest which show the early civilization.	
b. Visiting the large cities—Cairo and Alexandria. (1) Old sections in these cities. (2) Modern-day sections. (3) Shopping and trade—workshops and stores.	

Suggested Activities

1. Reading from pictures, maps, and written material information about ways of living and working in the desert, the kind of places in which the people of these lands live, and any relationships which are shown or suggested.
2. Making charts and drawings showing length of shadows at different times of day in the desert, directions, horizon and zenith, etc.
3. Drawing simple map representations, in turn, of a section of the Nile River, the delta, Egypt, the Arabian Peninsula, etc.
4. Making collections of pictures, tapestries, bits of pottery and beads for school museum, developing a series of legends explaining why the desert can produce such articles.
5. Making a frieze, wall posters, or moving pictures of typical Egyptian activities, such as irrigating the land, cultivating cotton, threshing grain, etc.
6. Making a wall hanging depicting such scenes as:
   Occupations of ancient Egyptians (pottery-making, glass blowing, weaving on loom, gathering grapes, etc.).
   Farming in modern-day Egypt.
   A trip down the Nile.
   Home life in an Arab tent—food, utensils, furniture, etc.
7. Making a picture map of the Nile and outlying sections.
8. Working out a desert scene on the sand table or a poster representation showing the Nile River, sailboats, Assuan Dam, water wheel used in drawing water from the Nile, a grazing scene, tents, camels, people, pyramids.
9. Dramatizing scenes from desert and Egyptian life, on such topics as: caravan travel, life in an oasis town, etc.

Suggested Integrations with Other Subjects

History

Integrating the work with the content of the 4B history unit on Egypt, I-A.

Under "suggested integrations" provision is made for relating social studies with constructive English, library and literature, history, handwriting, arithmetic, science, art, and music. Since this illustration is introduced primarily to show relationships with other social studies subjects only the suggestions relating to history are quoted.

Successive Courses

Instead of administering the separate subjects as parallel courses described in the previous illustration, they are frequently administered in successive semesters or grades. In the junior high school, for example, geography may be taught in the seventh grade, United States history in the eighth grade, and civics in the ninth grade. In the senior high school a common sequence is world history in the tenth grade, United States history in the eleventh grade, and economics and civics in successive semesters in the twelfth grade. The period of time which a given subject is taught is more or less arbitrarily determined. It may extend for two or three years or, on the other hand, it may be for a shorter period than one semester. Particularly in platoon schools, as an administrative device, it is common practise to alternate history and geography in periods of six or nine weeks. Such a plan provides close continuity in a given subject for a period of time and reduces the number of subjects in a pupil's daily program. It does, however, complicate the horizontal articulation of pupil experiences since it limits the variety of interests at any given time and precludes due consideration of the timeliness of topics such as current events and observance of special days. (See Figure II.)

Functional Organization of Materials

Probably a more vital aspect of the problem of organization is the specific plan of organization within the respective subjects. In history, for example, a purely chronological plan may be followed and all aspects of life at a particular time may be presented, i. e., life in the Middle Ages, life in ancient Greece, or colonial life in America. In contrast with this plan one aspect of life or a particular problem or movement may be discussed at a given time, i. e., the westward movement, the development of transportation, or the industrial revolution. In geography, the materials may be organized according to place and be merely a description of the physical environment of a particular continent, hemisphere, or country; or according to function (food, clothing, mining, farming) and reflect directly the influence of environment upon man's activities in supplying his primary physical needs. In civics, materials may be organized with reference to the form and agency of government (national government, state government, local government) with a description of the executive, legis-

lative, and judicial departments of each agency; or the materials may be organized with reference to services of the government, i. e., how the community protects our health, how the community provides education, showing how the different government agencies function in relation to that particular service.

Other types of organization could be mentioned [5] but an elaborate discussion is not appropriate in this connection. On the whole it appears that there is a trend toward a problem-solving and functional plan of organization in the belief that such a plan presents materials in a natural relationship and approximates more nearly actual life situations.

General Social Studies Courses

As the content of the history, geography, and civics courses comes to be reorganized on a functional basis, the need for a closer articulation of the materials in the different subjects becomes increasingly apparent. Regional geography, the topical method in history, the project method of teaching with its emphasis upon the natural setting, the problem method of teaching, and, more recently, the unit method of teaching, have been developed in an effort to meet this need. While each of these plans has certain distinctive features, one common purpose pervades all and the general effect is a pronounced trend toward breaking down the traditional subject lines in the social studies. In collecting data relevant to a given topic, problem, or unit, it is strikingly significant that it is frequently desirable to cross over subject lines and secure materials from different fields of social studies. This movement has resulted in the practise of organizing what may be termed general social studies courses. The extent to which the identity of the various subjects *in the social studies field* is submerged differs greatly in current practise. However, one may readily distinguish at least three degrees of merging of materials: (1) the alternating unit courses, (2) the correlated courses, and (3) the unified courses including integrated and fusion courses. (See Figure II.)

Alternating Unit Courses

In the alternating unit type the social studies are organized and administered as a single subject. In working out the general pattern, however, the identity of the different subjects may be more or less definitely preserved. Certain units or topics may relate almost wholly to one phase of social studies. A history unit may be followed in turn with a geography or civics unit or there may be a series of units in history followed by a series of units in geography. In selecting the materials and arranging their sequence it is assumed that a better relationship of materials will be effected than in the case of the separate subjects taught successively.

[5] Tryon, Rolla M., *op. cit.*, p. 431-56.

Lakewood, Ohio—The course in social science will serve as an illustration of the alternating unit plan of organization. Table 26, from the Lakewood course of study, reflects the relation between history and geography. In Grade 5B it will be noted that the first three units are history and the last three are geography. The time is about evenly divided between the two subjects. In Grade 5A the sequence is three units of geography, three units of history, and two units of geography.

The units in geography and in history assigned to the same semester do not bear a close relationship. In fact the preliminary statement in the course of study presents a justification for sharply distinguishing the subject identities. However, a further examination of the content of these units reveals that the geography units draw heavily on historic data and vice versa. The two units presented here as illustrative material are Unit 2, Northeastern

TABLE 26.—RELATION OF HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY UNITS AND ORDER OF TEACHING—LAKEWOOD [a]

Course of study in geography	*Course of study in history*
5B	5B
Unit 1. Glimpses of the United States (1 week)	Unit 4. How the Civilization of Europe Was Changed during the Middle Ages (3 weeks)
Unit 2. Western United States (4 weeks)	Unit 5. How Europe Sought East and Found West (3 weeks)
Unit 3. The Western Interior (5 weeks)	Unit 6. How the Nations of Europe Tried To Get Wealth from the Old World (3 weeks)
Course of study in geography	*Course of study in history*
5A	5A
Unit 1. Southeastern United States (2 weeks)	Unit 4. How the English Settled the New World (4 weeks)
Unit 2. Northeastern United States (4½ weeks)	Unit 5. How England Came To Own Most of North America (2 weeks)
Unit 3. United States Summary and State Geography (1 week)	Unit 6. How the Colonies Became a New Nation (3 weeks)
Unit 7. Scattered American Lands (1½ weeks)	
Unit 8. Canada (1 week)	

[a] Lakewood Public Schools. *Social Sciences: A Tentative Course of Study for the Fifth Grade.* Lakewood, Ohio: the Schools, 1931. p. 10. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent George A. Bowman.

United States (geography), and Unit 4, How the English Settled the New World (history), since both relate to the same region and consequently offer better opportunities for comparison.

UNIT 2. NORTHEASTERN UNITED STATES (GEOGRAPHY)—LAKEWOOD, OHIO[6]

I. *Major problem:* Why are there so many people and large cities in the northeastern part of the United States? Time: 9 weeks.

Elements of Unit

A. How do men fit their work and play to the kind of land in which they live?
   1. New England
      a. Landscapes.
      b. New England farms, farm practises, and the natural environmental factors which help to explain the same.
      c. Work in New England woodlands, forests, and mines.
      d. New England manufacturing
         (1) How work in earlier days helps explain present work.
         (2) Other factors which help explain present factory work.
      e. Important New England cities—geographic factors affecting their growth and the development of outstanding kinds of work which characterize each
         (1) Boston—trade and manufacturing center.
         (2) Portland—seaport.
         (3) Providence—seaport.
         (4) Bridgeport
         (5) New Haven
         (6) Fall River
         (7) New Bedford
         } shipping and manufacturing.

B. What are some presentday and future problems growing out of man's efforts to adjust his way of living to his environment in the Northeastern United States?
   1. The problem of immigration.
   2. Technological progress and its effect upon production. Contrast the amount of production in colonial days and now in textiles, metal goods, etc.
   3. Conservation of natural resources
      a. What is being done to conserve the forests and fish in New England?
      b. What is the government doing in conservation?
      c. How have the forests been destroyed and the soil wasted?
   4. The effect of machines upon employment
      a. Why was the problem of unemployment not possible in colonial days?
      b. What temporary difficulties were experienced when manufacturing passed from the household stage to the machine stage?
      c. What difficulties are machines causing today?

(Other problems mentioned in the complete course of study are: new problems of distribution, relations between racial groups, conservation of human resources, the need for greater liberal-mindedness, the wise use of leisure.)

[6] Lakewood Public Schools. *Social Sciences: A Tentative Course of Study for the Fifth Grade.* Lakewood, Ohio: the Schools, 1931. p. 26-35. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent George A. Bowman.

II. *Procedure—Activities*

A. Suggested approaches

1. Approach thru interest in the industries of the Northeast
   a. Talk about the things we have in our homes that have come from the northeastern states.
   b. Show slides and display pictures relative to the varied industries in the northeastern states.

2. Approach thru interest in the history of the East

   Pupils may have a real curiosity aroused thru the study of history to find out how the modes of life developed by the early colonists have reached down to our own day and have influenced the ways of living and work in the northeastern states today. Teachers should work for outcomes that involve not merely a knowledge of history, but which demand ability to use the understandings acquired thru the study of social and economic life in the colonies and to make them contribute to a better understanding of present-day life and its numerous problems waiting to be solved.

   a. Collect pictures showing the household stage of manufacturing, such as the spinning wheel, the hand loom, the village cobbler.
   b. Read to the pupils articles which contrast ways of living in colonial days with life today.

B. Suggested activities

New England

1. Show pictures, slides, stereographs of landscapes to be seen in this region as well as kinds of work going on.

2. See the teacher's manual for suggestions for teacher-directed study of this sub-unit.

3. As pupils read, have them list kinds of work man is carrying on in this section, as:
   a. Farming.
   b. Dairying.
   c. Lumbering.
   d. Quarrying.
   e. Ship building.
   f. Manufacturing
      (1) Textiles.
      (2) Boots and shoes.
      (3) Jewelry, metal goods.
      (4) Paper.
   g. Trade and commerce
      (1) Domestic.
      (2) Foreign.
   h. Tourist trade
      (1) Summer resorts.
      (2) Winter sports.

4. Oral reports or written stories on topics similar to the following:

Maple sugar.
Making shoes long ago and today.
The work of glaciers in New England.
Manufacturing cotton cloth.
The New England dairy farms.
The cod fishing industry.
The marble industry.
Manufacturing jewelry.

5. Pupils should be trained to read important facts from maps. Give map-reading exercises to gain facts pertinent to this unit, such as:
   a. Locate the regions from which New England obtains her raw materials.
   b. Trace railroad and ocean routes which bring in raw materials and take away manufactured products.
   c. Which is the most densely populated part of New England, the northern or the southern part? Find some physical features, such as mountains, etc., which seem to hinder dense settlements.
   d. Find some river valleys, as the Connecticut and Merrimac, which seem to encourage dense population.
   e. Notice the number of rivers and tell their general direction.
   f. Turn to the rainfall map on page 36 of the Barrows-Parker *United States and Canada*. Tell the effect on the streams used for water power.
   g. Locate and note the number of large cities in New England. From the population legend on the map determine the approximate population of each city.

6. Discuss the future of the forests in New England. Which of our natural resources in New England are in need of better conservation?

   a. Fish. b. Forests. c. Soils.

   Discuss why agriculture is not as profitable in New England as fishing, lumbering, and especially manufacturing.

7. The class, under the guidance of the teacher, may discuss and list reasons for each of the following problems as the unit develops or various groups of pupils may become responsible for gathering or listing facts, or the solution of one problem.

   a. Why are the people of New England coming to prize their forests more highly than formerly?
   b. How can this small area support so large a population?
   c. Why was New England adapted to cotton manufacturing in the early times? Why does New England continue to manufacture cotton in modern times?
   d. Why is America the world's greatest shoemaker?
   e. How has the influence of an early start affected the quarrying industry in New England?
   f. Why do many people in New England depend upon the sea for a living? What are the duties of the United States Fisheries Commission?
   g. Why does New England attract many tourists?
   h. Why is Boston sometimes called the "Hub of New England"?

   Discuss generalizations 3, 7, 9, 13, 15, 17, 22 as the class or groups present facts which help to solve the problems listed above.

8. Make a large frieze showing some of the various kinds of work going on in New England. See art outline.

9. Presentday and future social problems
   a. Discuss the conservation of our natural resources.
   b. Discuss the effect of machines upon employment. See elements of this unit.

Generalizations Which May Be Developed with Unit

(Taken from: Billings, Neal. *Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum.* Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929. 289 p. Only a few of the twenty-two generalizations listed are quoted.)

1. Coal and iron are basic raw materials which have encouraged and made possible the growth of cities.

2. The invention, use, and manufacturing of machines have caused the growth of cities.

3. Cities tend to grow up at geographic points advantageous for trade and transportation.

4. A chief factor in recent social changes is the great improvement in means of communication.

5. Progress in manufacturing requires an inventive people.

6. Density of population is favorable to man's higher needs.

7. Climate ultimately decides man's civilization; industrial civilizations have grown up in temperate climates.

An illustration of a history unit in the Lakewood course of study is as follows:

UNIT 7. HOW THE ENGLISH SETTLED THE NEW WORLD (HISTORY)—LAKEWOOD, OHIO[7]

Time: 4 weeks

General Themes	Aspects of the Themes
I. The Necessity of Man's Adaptation To Meet the Requirements of Subsistence.	(1) The tendency of the physical environment to determine modes of living. (2) The tendency of the physical environment to determine the industries of the people.
II. The Increasing Interdependence of One Group upon Another.	How the colonial family was largely self-sufficient in its food, clothing, and shelter.
III. Man's Tendency To Go from Place to Place in Quest of a Higher Standard of Living.	The tendency of established people to migrate with definite destinations in mind.
IV. The Inevitable Progress of Democracy.	How the colonists lived and worked and built up a nation—an experiment in democracy.

[7] Lakewood Public Schools, *op. cit.*, p. 105-15.

I. *Major problems:*

Why did different groups of English people come to America and settle in different places along the coast?
What did they bring with them as materials on which to build?
How did the colonists adapt themselves to their new environment?
What contributions and influences did they leave for us?

Elements of Unit

A. How were the colonies settled by people who wanted to gain religious freedom?

1. Massachusetts
   a. Several groups set out from England
      (1) Separatists—Plymouth.
      (2) Puritans—Massachusetts Bay Colony.
      (3) Others: Rhode Island, Connecticut.
   b. How they met their new situation
      (1) Towns.
      (2) Houses.
      (3) Furniture.
      (4) Churches.
      (5) Food.
      (6) Relations with Indians.
      (7) Government.
      (8) Each family's work.
      (9) Lack of arts.
      (10) Occupations: farming, ship building, fishing, whaling, trading.
   c. Daily life
      (1) Schools.
      (2) Good times.
      (3) Travel—roads.
      (4) Communication.
      (5) Punishments.
      (6) Discipline.
      (7) Crafts.
      (8) Light and heat.
      (9) Superstitions.
   d. Names to know

William Bradford.	Steigel.	Roger Williams.
Miles Standish.	John Carver.	John Harvard.
John Endicott.	William Brewster.	Duncan Phyfe.
Anne Hutchinson.	Samoset.	Squanto.
Massasoit.	John Winthrop.	

B. How were colonies settled by people who wanted to gain wealth?

1. Virginia
   a. People—where they came from and why.
   b. How the Jamestown colony was established.
   c. Life in the colony

Country life.	Schools.
Houses, furnishings.	Travel.
Work of planters.	Government.
Good times.	Food.
Punishment.	Clothing.
Industry and trade.	Churches.
Relations with Indians.	

   d. Names to know: John Smith, Pocahontas, Powhatan, Governor Berkeley.
2. Other English colonies in the South
   a. North Carolina b. South Carolina c. Georgia.
3. New Netherlands becomes an English possession.
   (Sub-items omitted here.)

C. What contributions and influences did they leave for us?
   1. Ideas of government.
   2. Freedom of religion.
   3. Ideas for adaptation to new physical environments.
   4. New ways of looking at life.
   5. Tolerance of viewpoints of others.
   6. Beginnings of some of our large industries.
   7. Architecture, furniture, silver, pewter.

D. What modern problems are we facing similar to those confronting the English colonists?
   1. The problem of increasing lack of interest in civic affairs
      a. Contrast the interest and responsibility assumed by colonists in community life and government with that of the average Lakewood citizen now.
      b. What problems of good government does Lakewood have right now?
      c. Why is it dangerous for Lakewood's citizens to be indifferent to the government?
   2. The problem of growing disrespect for law
      a. Give examples of disrespect shown by colonists for laws they had not helped to make.
      b. Give examples from our life today of common failures to comply with laws made by ourselves.
   3. The fight for world peace
      a. What means did the colonists usually use in settling difficulties?
      b. What ideas do we have about the best way of settling disputes?
      c. Why do we believe that our ideas are superior?
   4. The problem of technological progress and its effect upon production
      a. What difference is there between the kind, amount, and variety of food, clothing, tools used by an average colonial family and an average family now?
      b. What differences are there in the ways in which those necessities were produced then and now?
      c. What problems of employment have been caused by changed methods of production?

(In like manner the following problems are included in the complete course of study: the problem of conservation of natural resources, the problem of maladjustment in vocational distribution, the problem of relations between social groups, the problem of conservation of human resources, the problem of changing status of the family, the problems of rural life, the problem of the effects of new inventions for pleasure and comfort.)

II. *Procedure—Activities*

A. Suggested approaches
   1. Read from:
      "Pilgrim Stories," by Margaret Pumphrey.
      "Log Cabin Days," by Blaisdell and Ball.
      "The Landing of the Pilgrims," by Hemans.
      "Courtship of Miles Standish," by Longfellow.

II. *Procedure—Activities (Continued)*

"The Mayflower from 'Historic Ships'," by Holland.
"Colonial Life in America," by Tillinghast and Colman.

2. Discuss trips children have taken to historic spots east of the Appalachian Mountains.
3. Approach thru a review of the efforts of England, France, Spain, and Holland to get a hold on the New World.
4. Approach thru an interest in geography
   Compare the climate of the mother country to that of the new lands.
   Discuss adjustments to be made.
5. Approach thru pupil interest in nature study and wild life.

B. Suggested activities (The activities quoted under each heading below do not include all of those listed in the complete course.)

1. Orientation activities to get new experiences
   a. Read books listed for pupil reference.
   b. Make an outline map to show the locations of the colonies to be considered.
   c. Show colonial pictures.
   d. Visit colonial furniture and art displays in stores.
2. Research activities to get new experiences
   a. Read in order to find out:
      Why the early colonists decided to come to the New World.
      How they prepared to leave their old homes and establish new ones.
      What the colonists expected to find here: climate, food, people, land, etc.
      What natural food they found.
      What differences there were in crops of New England, Virginia, and England.
3. Group discussion activities to use experiences
   a. Discuss the reasons why different groups of colonists came to this country.
   b. Compare these with the reasons why people come to America now.
   c. Discuss the reasons why Maryland prospered more than Virginia.
4. Practise activities to assimilate experiences
   a. Write stories, give reports or floor talks on such subjects as those listed under "research activities" and "group discussion activities," or:

Country life in the South.	Where the finer things come from.
Traveling in New England.	How people were made to obey.
George Calvert.	John Smith.
	William Penn.
	The Mayflower.

   b. Imagine yourself an English child making a visit to the new country. Write home telling of one of the following: Slaves of the South, My Journey from Boston to New Haven, How They Raise Tobacco, How I Spent Sunday.
   c. Dramatize:
      A town meeting and a meeting of our legislature.
      The landing of the Pilgrims.
      John Smith and Pocahontas.
      The first Thanksgiving.
      The arrival of a ship from England.
      A day at a colonial school.

II. *Procedure—Activities (Continued)*

d. Summarizing activities

(1) Present an assembly to the school.

(2) Make lists of the following:

The first colonies.
Means of transportation.
Methods of punishment.
Household duties.
Utensils used in cooking.

(3) Add a colonial exhibit to the school.

(4) Give a puppet show to illustrate the story of "Rip Van Winkle."

5. Creative activities to express experiences

a. Write cooperative or individual stories or poems on such topics as the following:

A Quaker meeting.
Making friends with the Indians.
A barn-raising.
Candle-making.
Corn-husking.

6. Art activities to express experiences

a. Creative expression

(1) Representation of single objects or figures: drawing, painting, paper cutting

Draw pictures of such colonial articles as well-sweeps, candlesticks, wool-spinning wheel, cradle, churn, guns, warming pan, kettles, cranes, andirons, powder horns.

Make a picture of a colonial fireplace.

(2) Pictorial composition

Represent the various daily activities of the colonists of the North or the South.

(3) Design

Design a colonial sampler.

(4) Lettering and posters

Make posters announcing the colonial exhibit or the assembly.

b. Creative construction

(1) Models

Make a colonial house or colonial kitchen or a Dutch house or kitchen.

(2) Crafts

Make English and Dutch coins.
Make rugs.

(3) Booklets

Make booklets about the colonies.

Generalizations That May Be Developed with Unit

(Only a few of the generalizations listed are quoted below.)

1. Natural resources, climate, and the amount of control over physical environment determine the industry in which many of the people of a community engage, their food, clothing, and shelter.
2. War is often followed by changes in boundaries.
3. The mainsprings of progress are to be found in certain leaders.
4. Trade and transportation are important factors in bringing about changed social conditions.

In the geography unit a historic approach to the study of the region is suggested and in the history unit it is suggested that the approach may be thru the interest in geography. Altho the sequence of the two units is fixed for the semester there is no particular basis for assuming that the geography unit serves as a background for the unit in history. The time element is stressed in the geography unit in that changing environmental conditions, changing manufacturing methods, and changing population are specifically pointed out. In both units a conscious effort is made to make pupils aware of current political, social, and economic problems. Many of the activities listed in the units involve materials and experiences in English, art, and other school subjects.

Correlated Courses

The second type of general social studies is described as correlated courses. In such courses the identity of each subject is definitely preserved. Each one in turn is selected as the core subject for study at a particular time and materials from the other subjects are consciously related to it.

Salt Lake City—The following unit on Great Britain has been planned as a unit in geography with history and civics related.

UNIT II. GREAT BRITAIN—SALT LAKE CITY [8]

Why is Great Britain one of the great industrial and commercial powers of the world?

A. How did the invasion of Great Britain by the tribes from the mainland of Europe affect the language, customs, etc., of the native people?

1. Early inhabitants
   a. A barbarous people.
   b. Dwelt in caves.
   c. Lived by hunting and fishing.
2. Celts
   a. Used bronze instruments instead of stone.
   b. Tilled the soil.
   c. Discovered the use of iron.
   d. Druid religion.
3. Roman occupation.
4. Results of Roman occupation
   a. Britons learned to build roads.
   b. The beginnings of agriculture.
   c. Lost independence and initiative for Romans made slaves of the natives.
   d. Roman culture.
5. Ravages of Scots and Picts from the north
   a. Called upon Jutes to aid them.
   b. Jutes decided to conquer country for themselves.
   c. Angles and Saxons aid Jutes.

[8] Salt Lake City Board of Education. *Course of Study in Geography and Related History and Civics, Grades V, VI, and VII.* Salt Lake City, Utah: Board of Education, 1928. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent L. John Nuttall, Jr.

6. Christianity in Britain
   a. Pope Gregory.
   b. St. Augustine and the monks at Canterbury.
7. The struggle with the Danes
   a. Alfred the Great.
8. Norman conquest
   a. Effect upon the English language.

B. What geographic conditions have aided the British Isles in their development?

1. Location
   a. Island.
   b. Nearest to continent.
   c. Surrounding water shallow.
   d. Coast line affording good harbors.
2. Climate and rainfall
   a. Influence of the Gulf Stream and the westerly winds.
   b. Compare with the same latitude in North America.
   c. Effect of the climate upon the industries.
3. Rivers
   a. Furnish waterpower and commercial highways.
   b. Sunken river mouths furnish excellent harbors.
4. Highlands and plains
   a. In which natural regions of Europe do they lie?
   b. Influence of ice sheet.

C. What are the most important industries of the British Isles and how have their natural resources been developed?

1. Manufacturing
   a. Iron and steel products: iron and coal close together.
   b. Center: Birmingham.
   c. Textiles: woolen cloth; cotton; linen.
   d. People became skilled weavers: religious wars drove Flemish weavers to England.
   e. Woolen centers: Leeds; Bradford.
   f. Cotton center: Manchester.
   g. Raw cotton imported: climatic conditions favorable for manufacture of cotton.
   h. Linen: flax is important farm product of northern Ireland; weaving, a household industry.
   i. Linen center: Belfast.
   j. Other manufactured products: pottery; cement; grindstones; cutlery.
   k. Cutlery center: Sheffield.
   l. Inventions that have aided manufacturing.

2. Agriculture
   a. Climate favorable.
   b. Crops: grow twice as much wheat per acre as the United States.
   c. Truck farming: importance.
   d. Three-fourths of land tillable.
   e. Much of land given over to dairy farming.
   f. Much being used for manufacturing plants.
   g. Necessity for importing food.

3. Fishing
   a. Kinds of fish.
   b. Helps solve food problem.

(In the complete outline mining, commerce, and shipbuilding are developed in a fashion similar to the preceding industries.)

D. How has Great Britain's colonizing power been a factor in making her one of the leading nations of the world?

1. Location of colonies
   a. Extent of British possessions: one-fifth of the area of the world; one-fifth of the people of the world.
   b. Great Britain's dependence upon her colonies for food, raw materials, and markets.
2. Naval bases and coaling stations
   a. Need for.

E. How are the British Isles governed?

1. Limited monarchy
   a. Government of colonies.
2. Southern Ireland an independent free state.

F. What are the important centers of industry; their location and products?

1. London; Liverpool; Glasgow; Belfast; Manchester; Leeds; Sheffield; Birmingham; Cardiff.

Fundamental requirements:

To know the geographic conditions that have affected Great Britain.
To know the natural resources of Great Britain.
To understand how dependent Great Britain is on other nations for food, raw materials, etc.
To know the chief industries of Great Britain and the centers of each.
To understand how the possession of her colonies has made Great Britain important in world affairs.
To know the important possessions and where they are located.

Suggested problems:

How did Great Britain acquire the title "Mistress of the Seas"?
Why has London become one of the greatest cities of the world?
Why did the people of Great Britain develop manufacturing earlier than any other nation?
In what way is the United States dependent upon Great Britain?
We find that one hundred years ago Great Britain raised its own food supplies while at the outbreak of the World War it raised only one-fourth of what was required. Why?
Why has grazing increased while farming has decreased?
Will the use of oil do away with the necessity for having coaling stations to supply the ships with fuel?
Why is farming so profitable in Great Britain while in Labrador in the same latitude it is practically impossible?

Suggested activities:

Read how the English obtained the Magna Carta and explain what is meant by a representative government.
Make a list of products that Great Britain exchanges with the United States.
Collect pictures of London.
Find out all you can about the customs and dress of the Scottish Highlanders.
Plan an exhibit of articles that have come from Great Britain.
Find out all you can about how the labor problem was solved during the World War.
Make a chart showing different kinds of English woolens such as tweeds, cheviots, serges, etc., and then make one showing English cottons and Irish linens.
On a large outline map of the world show where Great Britain obtains raw materials.
Discuss the importance of the Panama Canal in relation to the commerce of Great Britain.
Collect pictures of famous buildings in England and find out for what each is noted.
Tell the story of the Spanish Armada and tell what effect it had on Great Britain's marine policy.
Read King Arthur stories and tell what place they had in English history.
Tell the story of James Watt and the steam engine.

The emphasis in the foregoing unit is on the relation of man to his physical environment; however, the historical background of life in Great Britain today is developed in Section A and the government of the British Isles is mentioned in Section E. Current social, political, and economic problems are referred to in different instances. Obviously teachers can determine the exact sequence of activities and introduce the various phases of the unit in the most appropriate relationships with little or no emphasis upon subject divisions if they so prefer.

The Unified Plan

The third plan of organizing materials in a general social studies course involves a more complete unification of materials. On the assumption that the existing divisions between geography, history, and civics hinder rather than assist in reflecting desirable relationships, an essential feature of this plan is the elimination of the identity of the individual subjects. The controlling influence in organization of materials is a problem, issue, or topic of social significance. Harold Rugg has stated the essence of the plan as follows:

> America is an integrated welter of forces; essentially it is a unit. It must be studied in toto. It cannot be comprehended by studying its forms separately or by considering, one at a time, the operations of its underlying forces, problems, and agencies. These forces, problems, and agencies—in part psychological, in part economic and political—are welded inextricably together; the ownership of land, the control of credit, industry, and trade, the standard of living, the fatigue of home life and the correlated mental attitudes of conformity and desire for social approval, the hierarchical organization of community life, the dazed indifference of the public, and, strangely aloof from it all, a giant only half awake to its potentialities—the public school. . . .

As one views American life as a whole in the light of the composition of the curriculum of our great school system, one conclusion presses insistently: We must invent a new synthesis of knowledge and make it the basis of the entire school curriculum. The conventional barriers between the existing subjects must be ignored in curriculum-making. The *starting point* shall be the social institution, or the political and economic problem—not the subject. Psychological forces must oust economic and political form as the directing themes of organization. . . .

The first change, therefore, imperatively needed in the school curriculum is a change in the character of its content. Paralleling this there is a second: the critical need for a sweeping reconstruction of the *organization* of our entire school curriculum.[9]

Wilson has made an exhaustive study of the relative merits of the separate subjects and unified plans.[10] In contrasting the two he has concluded that the differences are not on the basis of (1) the use of the unit method of organization, (2) the naturalness of the learning unit, or (3) the body of the content utilized. The striking difference is rather the point of view which is adopted in the selection and organization of materials. The unified plan of organization is to start with the present problem or current issue, whereas the separate subject plan is to select a generalization or fundamental concept which has been set up by subject specialists after a careful analysis of various aspects of society and make it the basis for the selection of curriculum materials.

The inference is that these basic generalizations pertain to a given subject and do not cross subject lines. The study of the list of generalizations compiled by Billings in a large measure at least verifies this conclusion since a very small percent involve two or more subjects.[11] Wilson also pointed out that the unified plan may effect a better relationship of materials within a given unit but on the other hand it tends to break the thread of continuity among the different units. An examination of a number of courses of study in which the individual subjects are not labeled reveals a wide variety of practises and varying degrees of unification. Various terms—fusion, integrated, and unified—are used to designate such courses. The administrator is not primarily concerned with terminology but he is interested in knowing whether the particular method which is adopted insures a comprehensive and well-balanced program and whether good scholarship is attained thruout. Much of the controversy on this subject is based upon the definition of terms. For example, there is no common agreement even with respect to the definition of history, geography, and civics. To some the distinction lies not so much in the content of the subject as in the viewpoint of the teacher or curriculum-maker. As Wilson describes the problem: "It is not a boundary

[9] Rugg, Harold. "A Preface to the Reconstruction of the American School Curriculum." *Teachers College Record* 27: 606-607; March, 1926.

[10] Wilson, Howard E. *The Fusion of Social Studies in Junior High Schools.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1933. p. 144-79.

[11] Billings, Neal. *Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum.* Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929. 289 p.

line which distinguishes history from geography or civics but a process of thinking, a point of departure." [12]

To those who accept such a viewpoint, the study of history is an attempt to show progression of society and emphasis is placed on continuity and change over a period of time. Materials may be taken from any field of knowledge but the subject is essentially history because of a consistent and definite point of view that is maintained thruout. Likewise, geography is characterized by the study of physical environment in relation to the life of man, but the applications may be quite varied as evidenced by the use of such terms as commercial geography, economic geography, or social geography. Such definitions cause subject labels to lose their significance. Under the unified plan materials are selected and organized with reference to a given problem or topic and subjectmatter lines are entirely ignored.

Indianapolis—The following unit on "The Development of Commerce" illustrates the possibilities of unifying experiences since the topic has many connections with all types of human relationships.

UNIT V. THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMERCE—INDIANAPOLIS [13]

Aim: To trace the development of commerce as a part of economic progress and gain an appreciation of some of the problems connected with exchange of goods. (Three weeks.)

The pupil should increasingly realize that no group of workers has reached the present stage in development without the help of many other groups and that progress of one phase of our national life depends upon the conditions in all other phases of our life. The growth of commerce has been slow. It is an exchange of surplus goods between sections of one country or between countries. It is to be distinguished from transportation by the fact that it does not in itself involve, as transportation does, the moving of goods from place to place.

Social and economic conditions at home and abroad have a direct influence on the problems of commerce. Peace and war, or economic stress of any kind, influence our foreign commerce. An intelligent understanding of these conditions at home and in other countries will help to form a wholesome public opinion and a constructive policy for the control of our commerce which will benefit all people.

Specific Outcomes

Expansion of Trade

1. To know that trade arises out of a condition in that the possession of articles by individuals or groups of people which others want and for which they can offer something of equal value in return.
2. To know that in early times trade was carried on very loosely by simple bartering—the direct exchange of commodities.
3. To understand that as trade conditions became more complicated standards of value were mutually determined and expressed in terms of one recognized medium.

[12] Wilson, Howard E., *op. cit.*, p. 97.

[13] Indianapolis Public Schools. *Course of Study in Social Studies, Junior High School Division, Secondary Schools, Grades 7, 8 and 9.* Indianapolis, Ind.: Board of Education, 1934. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent Paul C. Stetson.

4. To understand that as trade conditions became still more complicated, the governments have been called upon to establish standards and to fix mediums of exchange called money.
5. To see the development of a nationwide and worldwide system of exchange of goods.
6. To understand some of the reasons why the United States early developed into a great commercial nation.
7. To realize that at the present time the United States has worldwide commerce.
8. To realize that goods pass thru many hands in their progress from producer to consumer and that in the United States, many millions of people are engaged in the various aspects of exchange.

Factors Influencing Commerce

9. To realize that commerce is promoted because of the necessity of securing raw materials from all corners of the world to produce manufactured articles.
10. To know that as one region becomes commercialized it must reach out for markets in other regions.
11. To know why some of the commercial centers of the United States, such as New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, Seattle, New Orleans, have become great cities.
12. To recognize the close relationship between commerce and manufacturing.
13. To realize that peace and war at home and abroad have an influence on commerce.
14. To realize the importance of foreign trade to our commercial life.
15. To understand that regulations are necessary to secure the greatest good for the individual and the group and that these regulations often mean an apparent sacrifice for certain individuals and particular groups.
16. To understand the dependence of production on development of markets.
17. To realize that commerce is related to ownership of goods.
18. To understand that exchange depends upon individual and group integrity.

Suggested Materials and Activities

(* Indicates enrichment)

Expansion of Trade

1. Investigate the type of trade carried on by the ancient Babylonians.
2. Discuss the extent of the trade of the Phoenicians.
3. On an outline map of the world locate Babylonia, Tyre, Sidon, Carthage, Phoenicia, the Tigris, the Euphrates, Persian Gulf, Arabian Desert.
4. Give a report on the Greek traders.
5. Make a chart showing the articles the Crusades caused the people to want from the East and for which they traded European articles.
6. On an outline map of the world draw the principal trade routes of the Middle Ages.

*7. Explain the purpose of the great fairs held during the Middle Ages at Leipzig, Hamburg, St. Ives, Calais, Marseilles.

*8. List some of the handicaps to trade during the Middle Ages.

*9. Give the purpose of the founding of the Hanseatic League.

10. Show how the discovery of America affected world trade.
11. Learn the purpose of the organization of the Dutch East India Company, Dutch West India Company, Hudson Bay Company.

*12. Describe the methods of the early fur-trading posts in America.

*13. Show what part the slave trade had in the economic development of the trade of the United States.
14. Report on the part taken by these men in the development of commerce: Marco Polo, Prince Henry, Columbus, Henry Hudson, John Hawkins, Commodore Perry, John Hay.
15. On an outline map of the world trace the great ocean trade routes of today. Picture the freight carried.
16. On an outline map of the United States locate the great transcontinental railways, highways, airlines, and note the products carried.
*17. Learn something of the history of the American Merchant Marine in the following periods: before 1790, between 1790 and 1880, during the World War, since the World War.
*18. Compare the cargo of the caravan with that of a clipper and modern liner as to character, bulk, necessity, luxury, perishability, fragility.
19. Report on modern methods of loading and unloading ships and trains.

Factors Influencing Commerce

*20. Make a list of the products exchanged by the early American settlers with foreign lands.
21. What was the commercial motive which prompted the development of the canal system and the building of roads?
*22. Make a list of the raw materials which are supplied to the United States by foreign lands. Locate the lands from which they come.
*23. On an outline map of the United States show what products were exchanged between New England and the Central West, the West and the South, and the Central West and the Pacific Coast.
*24. Discuss the importance of the services of a consul of the United States in a foreign city.
25. Give the advantages and disadvantages of shipping goods by waterways, railways, highways, and airways.
*26. Learn why the old Santa Fe Trail was used principally for commerce while the Oregon Trail was used by the explorers and settlers.
27. Explain why the following characteristics are essential for a good seaport:

a. Adequate docking facilities.
b. Protection against storms.
c. Deep-water accommodations.
d. A productive hinterland.
e. Transportation facilities by land.

28. On an outline map of the United States locate the ports of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Galveston, New Orleans, Charleston, Los Angeles, Seattle; list on the map the imports and the exports.
29. Make a list of Indianapolis firms that are interested in foreign trade. Visit one of these firms and report on what you learn about its foreign trade.
30. Give reasons why many of the treaties of the United States are commercial treaties.
*31. On the market page of a newspaper note the articles listed for domestic and foreign commerce.
32. Make a graph showing the amount of trade carried on between the United States and Europe and the United States and the Orient in 1900 and today.
*33. Collect clippings which tell what Congress is doing with the tariff.

34. State the work of the Department of Commerce.
35. Show the need for peaceful cooperation as trade develops and nations become more interdependent.
36. Find the reasons for the failure of many of our steam and electric railways in the last few years.
37. Discuss the importance of the Panama and Suez canals to world commerce.

Oakland, California—Another example of a unified social studies course is quoted from an experimental course of study in contemporary problems in the eleventh and twelfth grades. This course of study is described as "an articulated two-year sequence of work for Grades XI and XII around the theme 'Major Problems of America Today,'" and is intended to absorb the traditional courses in American history and government, economic and social problems. It is required of all pupils in the upper high-school years. The tentative list of the units comprising the course is as follows:

CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS—OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA[14]

Grade Eleven

(1st semester)

Unit. I. Orientation: We and Our World.
II. Analysis and Appraisal of Sources of Information.
III. Ever-Present Government.
IV. Challenges to Democratic Government.
V. Suffrage: Its Organization and Power.

(2nd semester)

VI. Wealth: Its Acquisition and Use.
VII. Money Management and Consumer Problems.
VIII. Guarding Our Health.
IX. Spiritual Values in American Life.
X. Relation of United States to Other Nations.

Grade Twelve

(1st semester)

XI. Adjusting Personality to Reality.
XII. Place and Importance of Education.
XIII. Economic Organization and Activities.
XIV. The Common Man's Present Outlook.
XV. The Home and Family.

(2nd semester)

XVI. Plans and Planning.
XVII. "Sore Spots" in American Social Life.
XVIII. Providing for Security.
XIX. Those Needing Special Care.
XX. The Place of Work and Vocation.

[14] Oakland Public Schools. *Teacher's Outline and Guide for Course in Contemporary Problems.* Grades XI and XII. Oakland, Calif.: Board of Education, August, 1935. mimeographed, p. 7-8. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent E. W. Jacobsen.

Unit XV on the home and the family is quoted below to show the organization of materials in the course of study:

UNIT XV.—THE HOME AND FAMILY—OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA [15]

Our aim in this unit should be to guide the student to an appreciation of the family as the basic unit of society; to a constructive and wholesome viewpoint regarding home-making, its joys, problems, and their possible solutions.

By the time the young man or woman has reached the last year in high school his or her own position as a potential partner in a home-making venture is one of much concern. A foundation is laid for a wholesome study and understanding of the real place of the home and family as a social and economic unit. Existing problems are analyzed and possible solutions considered.

Outline of Unit XV

A. Importance of Family Unit.

1. Basic unit in all societies.
2. Natural and most successful provision for racial continuity.
3. Historic relationships of father—mother—children.

B. Worthiness of Ambition To Found Home.

1. Opportunity for expression of best or worst in humanity.
2. Contrast of clean, sensitive person with one with sordid past and base point of view.
   a. Planning for future happiness.
   b. Success of marriage venture.
3. Misunderstanding of true place of romantic love as evidenced by frequency of appearance of:
   a. Sordid, undesirable situations:
      (1) In literature, movies, etc.
      (2) In so-called wit and humor.
4. How can standards be raised?

C. Present Legal Status in America.

1. Lack of uniform state laws.
2. Laws of your state as to:
   a. Age of contracting parties.
   b. Provisions re children.
   c. Provisions re property, etc.
   d. Provisions re broken homes.

D. Homes and Economic Security.

1. Effect of financial insecurity.
   a. On prospective marriages.
   b. On maintaining homes already established.
2. Prospect and advisability of government aid.
   a. Experience of European countries.
   b. Recent developments in the United States

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 47-48.

Accompanying the brief outline of the unit in the course of study, a study guide has been prepared for the use of the pupils. A few brief excerpts are quoted below to indicate the type of pupil activities:

Setal 1:

Keep account for a week, as suggested below, of hours spent and discuss what you find. (The term "setal" is used in the Oakland course of study to abbreviate the phrase "suggested experience to aid learning.")

	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.	Totals for Week
Home								
School								
Community								
Church								
Vocation								
Leisure out of home								

Setal 2:

Can you name any theme about which more music has been composed or words written than that of Love, Marriage, Home, and Family? Discuss.

Setal 4:

What has been the general effect upon American life of the extension of suffrage to women?

Setal 6:

Write a paper describing the qualities possessed by (a) the husband and (b) the wife in five successful marriages with which you are acquainted.

Setal 20:

What is your opinion of the frequent newspaper display of the domestic difficulties of celebrities?

Setal 27:

Do you consider that the radio contributes to or detracts from real family solidarity?

Setal 31:

Develop a panel discussion around the problem of married women in industry.

Setal 35:

From your observation do you think there is any relationship between poor homes and crime?

Setal 36:

Is there likely to be a definite relationship between poor housing and poor citizenship in the young? [16]

[16] Oakland Public Schools. *Student's Guide Book: Problems of Today.* Unit XV, "The Home and Family." Social Studies—Grade 12. Oakland, Calif.: Board of Education, August, 1935. mimeographed, p. 5-23.

Fort Worth—The following unit illustrates still another plan of unifying materials in social studies. This unit on housing in the fifth grade represents a "modern problems approach" in curriculum-making.

GRADE FIVE (UNIT SIX)—FORT WORTH, TEXAS [17]

Our Housing Needs and How We Have Learned To Care for Them

I. *Objectives*

A. Controlling them; man's increasing control over nature.

B. Aspect of the theme to be developed; man's increasing control over nature with respect to shelter.

C. Generalizations that may be developed:

1. As man has progressed from savagery to civilization, the number of things he desires and even considers necessary to his existence has increased enormously.
2. Housing in its first inception was the result of a desire for protection from the elements and from wild animals.
3. Man's need for shelter is a primary need and cannot be neglected without impairing his usefulness, happiness, and general well-being.
4. Climate is an important factor in determining the kinds of adaptations man makes in providing himself with shelter.
5. There has been a gradual evolution of the housing idea, each change contributing something of importance or interest and resulting from changed conditions of a physical, a social, or an economic nature. (Only a few of the generalizations listed in the course of study are quoted.)

D. Desirable outcomes: (Only one or two samples of the outcomes listed under each division are quoted.)

1. A knowledge and an understanding of
   a. Problems which have arisen in connection with the housing of people in the rapidly growing cities; some of the efforts that are being made to solve these problems.
   b. The history of housing so that the pupils may see the progress that man has made in the adaptation of shelter to meet his physical and social needs.
2. An appreciation for
   a. The part science has had in raising the standards of good housing.
   b. The contributions people of distant lands make for our comfort in housing.
3. An attitude of
   a. Open-mindedness toward all printed discussions of social problems.
   b. Cooperation in meeting group needs.
4. Habits of
   a. Listening attentively to reports of other pupils and acquiring information in that way.
   b. Speaking distinctly.
5. Skills in
   a. Reading books.
   b. Making a bibliography.

[17] Fort Worth Public Schools. *Social Studies, A Tentative Course of Study for Grade Five.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 106. Fort Worth, Texas: Board of Education, 1933. Printed here thru the courtesy of Superintendent W. M. Green.

II. *Overview*

Man's increasing control over nature is well demonstrated by the manner in which he has learned to shelter himself from the elements and the ferocity of wild beasts. This unit proposes to show the increasing control over nature by tracing the development of modes of shelter from the natural homes which prehistoric man appropriated to presentday structures. The first shelters were mere cracks, or holes, in the ground; later, man adapted his houses to afford greater protection; and finally he created new ways of providing needed housing and satisfying his esthetic sense. Houses of today naturally divide themselves into two classes, rural and urban. The degree of comfort and convenience afforded in these houses ranges from the squalor of the slum on the one hand and the utter want of the rural shack on the other to the luxury of the palatial residence of the wealthy. The process of building has steadily grown more complex as the number of workers and the variety of building materials have increased.

From a study of the progress man has made since prehistoric times the pupils should gain an understanding of the requirements of good housing. A contrast should be drawn between the simple one-room shelter of primitive man and the modern complex house equipped with steam, running water, and numerous electrical appliances. Emphasis should be placed on the changing social conditions that have determined the architecture of presentday houses. The causes of poor housing conditions should be understood, so that suggestions for improving the standard of living of the underprivileged may be considered. The idea that the best builders will be those who build for the common people should be stressed. The unit should venture to forecast the house of the future. An attempt should be made to make the individual feel a personal responsibility for improving living conditions about us.

III. *Suggested Approaches*

A. Make an approach thru leads growing out of the uses of lumber and minerals in Unit Four, Grade Five.
B. Read stories to the class.
C. Have the class read a story about early and presentday housing.
D. Place pictures on the bulletin board.
E. Make an excursion to a house under construction, a poorer district of Fort Worth, a lumber yard, or a planing mill.
F. Discuss the meaning of the term "restricted areas" in city housing.
G. Read clippings from a newspaper quoting building permits for the week.
H. Have a pupil who has visited the Century of Progress describe "Model Houses."

IV. *Suggestive Assimilative Materials*

A. Relics tell us about the first homes of our forefathers.

Man's earliest attempts to provide himself with a dwelling came when he discovered that it would help him escape the ravages of the elements and the ferocity of the wild beasts. At first he merely appropriated those cracks, screens, and holes provided by nature. Later he adapted these in various ways to afford himself better protection.

In his quest for protection he utilized all of nature's offerings. Note the following examples.

1. Tree homes—the shelter of the forest; methods of contriving shelter from tree trunks, branches, leaves, bark, etc.—early appropriative state in which the offerings of nature were accepted with little modification; prime purpose being protection; ruling emotion, fear.
   (In like manner the homes of the Cave Dwellers and Lake Dwellers are discussed.)
2. Ice homes—the shelter of the elements: the igloo of the frozen north; adaptation to climate; adaptive stage of civilization; protection from cold as motive.

B. Records tell us about the housing of our Old World forefathers.
   1. The Egyptians were great builders, but they built for their dead.
      a. Points of interest
         Marvelous accomplishments of the Egyptian builders, characterized by colossal size of buildings; jointed masonry; solidity; distinctive ornamentation; extravagant attention to individual deification of royalty and the utter neglect of the housing needs of the masses; architecture displayed in pyramids, temples, obelisks, and so on; the mud huts of the common people inadequate in every respect—sanitation, privacy, space, protection, and so on; remarkable achievements in building but not in housing; development of the building arts and principles of construction far beyond the rest of the world.
         (In like manner the efforts of the Greeks, Romans, and medieval European builders are discussed.)

C. Relics and records tell us about the housing accomplishments of our American forefathers.
   1. The architectural accomplishments of the American Indian.
      a. Points of interest.
         The extraordinary accomplishments of the Aztecs, Mayas, and Incas of Mexico, Central and South America; their architectural style and methods; their houses, temples, etc.; the homes of the cliff-dwellers of the Southwest; the long house of the Iroquois; the tepee of the plains Indian; the towns and villages with their fairly permanent homes of the Southwest Indian; standards of housing of the Indian; requirements for a home; extent to which the home represented tribal life and customs; extent to which the dwelling of the Indian filled its place in the life of the family, of the tribe.
         (In like manner the housing accomplishments of the colonists and pioneers are discussed.)

D. Housing conditions of today
   1. Classes of houses.
      a. Dwelling places of city people.
         (1) Slum conditions in large cities—a slum is a residential area, a social liability, where the houses and conditions of life are of a squalid and wretched character. The picture that comes to mind is a mass of more or less nondescript individual houses, tenements, stables, dilapidated shops, where there is an absence of paint, an accumulation of dirt, tin cans, and rubbish. The atmosphere is scented with a dark, damp, moldy odor, intermingled with the smell of decay-

ing matter. The slum is a distinctive area of disintegration and disorganization.

American cities have the worst slums in the world—for example, New York, Chicago, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Cleveland, and others. All kinds of slums are to be found everywhere with conditions—such as, the mixing of races, overcrowding of land, constructing of tall tenements that shut out sun and fresh air; houses that are old, rundown, dilapidated, damp, infested with vermin, without essential conveniences of living, without water supply in the rooms, and without sanitary facilities.

(2) Living in a modern apartment house—The apartment house is a commercial enterprise, and under normal conditions the supply has followed the demand. A typical apartment is a temporary abode, which does not have the atmosphere and the association of a permanent home. The apartment population is a relatively nomadic population reluctant to assume local responsibilities.

The occupants of the modern apartment wake to cathedral chimes of nationally advertised alarm clocks; bathe in tile baths surrounded by glass towel racks, glittering medicine cabinets, iridescent water-closet seats; hot and cold water taps; shiny brass, etc.

Breakfast is prepared by electrical appliances; water is iced by electrical refrigeration; the newspaper is delivered at the door

(3) The small bungalow.
(4) An orphan asylum.
(5) A hotel or boarding house.
(6) The home of a wealthy man.

b. Dwelling places of rural population.
(1) Modern farm houses.
(2) Ranch houses.
(3) Mountain cabins.
(4) Miners' cabins.

2. Building materials.

a. Hollow tile is an important structural material for inner walls. It is fireproof, light in weight, comparatively inexpensive, and it has great insulating value.

b. Stucco is a cement plaster consisting of cement and sand, or cement, sand, and lime mixed in varying proportions and applied to the outside of a building for protection and decoration.

c. Portland cement is made by heating a mixture of limestone and clay in a kiln to such a temperature that fusion takes place and clinkers are produced. These clinkers are ground and mixed with 3 percent gypsum. Concrete is a mixture of cement, sand, pebbles, and water.

d. Metal walls, floors, roofs, and ceilings are made of rustless steel, copper, bronze, or aluminum properly insulated.

e. Glass floors and walls, either transparent or opaque, are made of the non-shatterable type.

f. Lumber has long been one of chief building materials. Because of the increasing scarcity and inflammability of lumber it is losing some of its popularity.

g. Compressed straw, reeds, rushes, and vegetable fibers are made in large units to be stuccoed on one side and plastered on the other.

E. The house of the future.

Possible modifications or new creations with respect to the houses of the future are to be expected.

1. New architectural designs that will care more adequately for conditions affecting

a. Health—more sunlight; better air; less noise, etc.
b. Comfort—conditioned air for all; quiet; more spacious.
c. Beauty—color, lighting, ornamentation, form.
d. Convenience—more adequate furniture; better spacing in rooms; central heating.
e. Safety—from household accidents, street accidents.

The Dymaxion House is a machine for living, the purpose of which is not only to keep occupants warm and dry, but to reduce the drudgery of cleaning, cooking, washing, and service now permitted by the state of mechanical arts and to enlarge its possibilities. The whole house is as nearly self-sufficient and as nearly free from the political nuisances of city water, city sewage disposal, city electricity, and city lights as may be. Its adoption might well expedite the urban decentralization now anticipated.

2. There will be new materials of construction that will be better adapted to unit construction; hence large-scale production so that buildings costing less will be possible and different uses for materials now on the market may be made.

The whole construction of the Dymaxion House is hung from a duraluminum mast. The walls are windowless, the air is drawn in through vents at the top of the mast, and artificial light is provided. Partitions are sound-proof, and furniture is built in.

3. New methods of construction are needed to facilitate building, reducing the time and hence the costs.

Volume production makes it possible for families of limited income to own these homes. Trade-marked houses will be as common as trade-marked soup, soap, etc. The construction of these houses is rapid; therefore it is extremely economical. Wall and roof panels, already cut, are delivered by truck and can be erected by a crew of four men and a crane in a single working day.

4. New types of grouping are instituted to relieve the monotony that results from all standardization.

F. How the housing idea has changed from time to time

1. Why housing conditions change as they do

Interesting adaptations that have been made in the general form of houses to meet specific conditions of climate, surface features, modes of living, or natural supply of materials of construction

a. The Swiss chalet

Switzerland is a land of mountain peaks, glaciers, lakes, and rivers. The rural Swiss are marvels of thrift, forcing out a livelihood from the slimmest strip of valley soil. Families live for generation after

generation in the same picturesque, ginger-colored houses, or chalets. Heavy stones are placed on roofs of these as a protection against mountain winds.

(The Eskimo stone house, the Arab tent, the South African kraal, and the adobe hut are presented in contrast.)

2. As it was then and is now

Changed social and economic conditions that have resulted in changed house forms

a. The formation of tribal homes.
b. The breaking up of tribal homes.
c. The decreased size of the family.
d. The elimination of home occupations.
e. Religious beliefs.
f. The formation of national governments to replace feudal control.
g. The equalization of the sexes.
h. The abolition of slavery.
i. The decreased number of servants.
j. The introduction of delivery methods and small package sales.
k. The introduction of labor-saving devices.
l. Increase of population density.
m. Introduction of rapid transportation.
n. Change in attitude due to increased social conscience.
o. Conditions that will best give privacy, quiet, comfort, beauty, space, etc.
p. Changes in economic conditions.

G. The builders and the steps in their work

1. Prehistoric builders

He chooses a location.
He gets ready his tools.
He gets ready his building materials.
He builds his house.

2. Builders of yesterday

a. Egyptians

(1) The farmer

His location is selected.
Tools for molding brick are secured.
He provides clay and straw for bricks.
He and his family make the brick.
He builds a small hut.

(2) The ruler

The chief architect makes his plans.
The slave masters assemble their builders.
The builders get ready their tools.
The construction materials are produced.
The pyramid is built.

b. Greeks

The architect designs the building.
The builders set to work.
The temple is dedicated.

c. Romans
The owner approves the plans of his master builder.
Construction begins.
The house is finished.
The owner inspects the new house.

d. Feudal
He calls together his knights and arranges to secure their assistance.
The builders assemble.
Construction is begun.
The castle is finished, and a banquet is held in the great hall.

3. Builders of today
a. Building a city apartment house
(1) Points of interest
The procession of the workers and the part played by each, his tools, his methods—the architect, the contractor, the steam shovel man, the cement mixers and pourers, the riveters, the masons, the carpenters, the electricians, the painters, the plumbers.
(2) Specialization of labor, organization and the use of labor-saving tools and machines.

b. Building a cottage
(1) Points of interest
The process of building; the procedure of workers, their tools, and machines; the similarity to old methods emphasized; as to the amount of handwork done; the use of outworn methods; the lack of standardization; the use of materials for which less costly substitutes could be used, etc.

4. Builders of tomorrow
a. Points of interest
Large scale operations; the use of the best methods that research can reveal; the use of unit parts; employment of new materials, new tools, and machines.

H. Making the earth work for us

1. Making the forest help solve our shelter problems
a. The forest area we possess.
b. Builders' wastefulness.
c. Conservation of timber.
d. How the forests help us produce housing materials
(1) Lumber.
(2) Paper.
(3) Paint.
(4) Cork.
e. Owners of the forests. Why they do not belong to all of us.

2. Making the mines help us
a. How structural steel came to take the place of wood.
b. How we get the metals that we use in housing.
c. How much iron we have and where it is.
d. Who own the mines and why they own them.

3. Making the soil help shelter us
   a. The two kinds of soil that help us most.
   b. The history of clay bricks.
   c. How we make glass.
   d. How we make cement.

I. Good housing conditions

1. What one wishes to buy when he buys a home
   a. Protection from illness and accident.
   b. Space in which to carry on the activities in which he wishes to participate.
   c. Privacy.
   d. Protection from the elements.
   e. Protection from outside interference.
   f. Possibilities of comfort and beauty.
   g. The proper location with respect to work; to transportation.
   h. The possibility of homogeneous social relationships.
   i. The place in which to establish the institution of the family.

2. Fundamental requirements of a house inspection
   a. Surrounding community conditions.
   b. Relation of the house to surroundings.
   c. Design—the plan as to
      (1) Adequacy and proportion of room sizes.
      (2) Relationship of rooms.
      (3) Economy of space.
      (4) Provision of space for heating, etc.
      (5) Its convenience.
      (6) Light and ventilation.
      (7) Closet space.
      (8) Usable wall space.
   d. Design—appearance of exterior
      (1) Use of material.
      (2) Decorative motifs.
      (3) Relation to adjacent designs.
      (4) Proportions of openings.
      (5) Relation of opening to wall space.
      (6) Color.
   e. Design—interior appearance
      (1) Treatment of stairs.
      (2) Relation of openings to wall space.
      (3) Treatment of fireplace.
      (4) Treatment of wall surfaces.
      (5) Electric fixtures.
      (6) Hardware.
      (7) Color.
      (8) Floors and other woodwork.
   f. Construction—quality of materials
      (1) Foundations.
      (2) Walls, floors, partitions.
      (3) Roofing.
      (4) Exterior finish.

(5) Interior finish.
(6) Flooring.
(7) Heating plant.
(8) Plumbing.

g. Construction—quality of workmanship (same as "f").

3. Minimum housing standards
   a. Qualities that every person in the United States has a right to demand as minimum qualifications of the shelter in which he lives.
   b. Using the standards set up by the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Cleveland, 1912 (*Proceedings*, p. 391-92).
   c. Generally accepted standards and the best that have been formulated.
4. A model house
   a. Appraising the house in terms of standards.
   b. Learning to read and to make a floor plan.
   c. Learning to make a blueprint.
   d. A dictionary of construction terms.
   e. The relation of the floor plan to
      (1) The activities of the family group.
      (2) The comfort of the family.
      (3) The exterior design of the house.

V. *Suggested Activities* (The activities quoted are only a few of those listed in the course of study.)

A. Orientation activities

1. Collect pictures of homes in the African jungle, the Pacific Islands, Alaska, and Greenland. Notice materials used. Show adaptation to climatic and geographic conditions.
2. Make a list of all the kinds of houses man has used.

B. Research activities

1. Read to find out the materials used in colonial homes. Why were so many of them built of wood? Why are we using other materials today?
2. Read and report on the slum districts of Chicago, New York, or any other large city. What is being done to relieve these conditions? Why do people hear so little about poor housing conditions in large cities?

C. Discussion activities

1. Discuss the reasons why man needs shelter.
2. Tell how we find out about the homes of prehistoric man.

D. Practise activities

1. Make a dictionary of construction terms.
2. Make a scrapbook showing pictures of different kinds of lumber and their uses.

E. Creative activities

1. Make an exhibit of different building materials.
2. Make a sun-dried brick.

VI. *Teaching Unit Captions*

A. How Prehistoric Man Was Housed.
B. The Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans as Builders.

C. The Architectural Accomplishments of the American Indian.
D. The Houses of the Colonists.
E. How the Housing Idea Has Changed.
F. Rural Housing Conditions.
G. Housing Conditions in a Large City.
H. The House of the Future.

VII. *Suggested Culminating Activities*

A. Make a cooperative book of types of houses or building materials.
B. On an outline map of the world show by pictures or sketches the types of houses in different climates and countries.
C. Hold a national conference on housing conditions.
D. Have a panel discussion of model houses, assigning speakers to describe types of model houses and lead the discussion.

VIII. *References.*

The unit quoted above is a good illustration of an effort to organize materials in relation to a vital problem affecting a primary need of every individual—shelter. A careful examination of the unit will reveal that every aspect of the topic mentioned earlier in the chapter, such as time, place, relationship to other social happenings, and application to life situations, is treated. This plan of organization presents a direct contrast to the traditional course of study in which only one aspect of the topic was ordinarily considered at one time. The organization of materials relating to this topic in terms of appropriate grade levels is discussed in Chapter VIII.

The Integration of Social Studies with Other Subjects in the Curriculum

A third problem which must be considered is the relationship between the social studies and other subjects in the curriculum. The organization of materials in any subject must be considered in terms of the general curriculum policy. John Dewey has pointed out that our adherence to the traditional subject classification has resulted in chaos and confusion since these labels no longer identify the actual content of the courses.[18] Each subject has undergone certain expansions and changes in emphasis and the result has been overlapping in the content of different subjects. The number of courses has been multiplied many times and each new subject has merely added a new point of view of predominant interest which has greatly added to the confusion. The "way out" as proposed by Dewey is thru the application of the problem or project method and the organization of materials about a central question or problem. As mentioned previously, Rugg declared the need for a "new synthesis of knowledge" in which the current problem, or social or economic subject would become the controlling influ-

[18] Dewey, John. *The Way Out of Educational Confusion.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1931. 41 p.

ence in curriculum organization.[19] These recommendations have exerted an influence in favor of breaking down the barriers between the traditional subjects and effecting a better integration of the materials in the curriculum.

Assuming that education consists primarily in recognizing relationships and making new ones, the function of the school is to plan the experiences of pupils so that these observed relationships become basic generalizations or keys to understanding. The implication is that in developing these generalizations it is often necessary to cross subject lines and draw materials from many different fields of knowledge. (See Figure II, page 181.)

Correlation or Integration

Several different plans have been devised for effecting a better relationship of the materials in the different subjects. As in the case of relating the materials in the subjects within the social studies field, these plans differ largely in the degree of relationship effected. The terms correlation and integration which are used interchangeably might well be distinguished on the basis of the extent to which the identity of the subjects is retained. In the case of correlation the identity of the various subjects is maintained but materials in one subject are definitely related to materials in another. Monroe has defined correlation as follows: "Correlation . . . . means the interrelation of studies so that the material of each lesson is made interesting and intelligible thru its connection with the points involved in others." [20]

The most effective type of correlation is the incidental relating of materials which comes naturally in connection with the normal development of a classroom project under the direction of an able, cultured teacher with broad experience. Such teachers are always on the alert to utilize opportunities for connecting new experiences with previous information and knowledge even tho other subjects are involved. Within limits, suggestions for correlation of materials may be written into the courses of study, and by the use of cross references teachers may be guided in pointing out many of the relationships. In the case of health, for example, certain aspects may be developed in physical education, others in science, social studies, and home economics. If all courses of study are checked with this one objective in mind, many opportunities may be noted whereby the teachers in one department may reenforce and enrich the experience of the pupils gained in another. In many cases it has been found desirable to organize a correlation committee made up of representatives of the various subject committees to discuss the emphasis which should be given to any common problem by each of the different committees and then check to see that a given viewpoint is maintained in the development of that particular course

[19] Rugg, Harold, *op. cit.*, p. 607.
[20] Monroe, Paul, editor. *Cyclopedia of Education.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Vol. II, p. 209.

of study. Of course a certain amount of duplication of materials may not be objectionable since it tends to review and elaborate experiences previously gained, but needless repetition of materials and the possibility of conflicting points of view confuse the pupils and involve an unnecessary loss of time.

In case a more completely integrated curriculum is the goal, subjects, as such, are entirely disregarded and some problem, issue, or topic is made the controlling factor in organization. While all degrees of correlation and integration are represented in current courses of study two illustrations will suffice to indicate typical plans for developing a unified curriculum.

State of Virginia—The first illustration is quoted from the Virginia state course of study which has been published just recently. This course of study represents a definite departure from the traditional practise. The curriculum is organized around a particular center of interest in each grade. Each center of interest is developed according to each of the "Major Functions of Social Life." For a discussion of the program as a whole reference should be made to Chapter VI. In the sixth grade the center of interest is the influence of machine productions on our social life. The following aspects of this center of interest are suggested for development with the pupils:

How does machine production lead to the conservation and to the waste of life, property, and natural resources?
How does machine production increase the quantity and variety and change the quality of goods?
How does machine production of standardized goods influence the choice and use of goods?
How does machine production affect transportation and communication?
How does machine production influence recreation?
How does machine production modify art, literature, music, and architecture?
How does machine production influence the development of the church?
How does machine production influence education? [21]

A few brief excerpts from the sixth-grade course of study illustrate how the materials are organized in relation to these topics.

ASPECT 4. HOW DOES MACHINE PRODUCTION AFFECT TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION? [22]

Things that may be interesting to children:

Boats.	Bridges.	Tariffs.	Imports.
Shipping.	Harbors.	Exports.	

Suggestive activities: (Figures in parentheses refer to objectives listed elsewhere in the course of study.)

[21] Virginia State Board of Education. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I-VII.* Richmond: the Board, 1934. p. 210. Printed here thru the courtesy of State Superintendent Sidney B. Hall.
[22] *Ibid.*, p. 236-49.

Reading about and discussing how machinery overcomes natural barriers and promotes trade thru the building of bridges, railroads, and docks (124, 203, 204, 210, 216, 220, 302, 305).

Discussing and reading about the advantages of modern passenger steamships and freighters (118, 216, 219, 220, 302, 305).

Tracing passenger and freight steamship routes on an outline map of the world (107, 204, 217, 219, 307).

Reading about and discussing the variety of goods which is made available thru the expansion and extension of trade (124, 203, 216, 217, 219, 220, 302, 305).

Discussing the location and reasons for the development of the important harbors of the world (111, 204, 210, 305, 307).

Reading about and discussing advantages of ports to countries (111, 204, 302, 305).

Making models of boats, cars, and airplanes (113, 124, 206, 209, 306).

Reading about and discussing the effect of tides upon certain phases of water transportation (111, 204, 205, 302, 305).

Collecting samples of the most important imports and exports of the United States and labeling them for a class exhibit (106, 217, 219, 309).

Making a pictorial map showing the exports and imports from leading world ports (107, 204, 217, 219, 307).

Discussing reasons for the amount of trade between the United States and other countries (111, 204, 214, 216, 219, 302).

Locating on a world map the countries with which the United States has extensive trade (106, 217, 219, 307).

Collecting pictures showing the development of trading vessels (106, 204, 209, 217, 307).

Experimenting with air pressure (113, 205, 317).

Airplanes, automobiles, bicycle pumps, well pumps, vacuum cleaners, and many other things in which sixth-grade children are interested illustrate the principle of air pressure. Children are also interested in finding how people work under water. A few simple experiments with air pressure will help to make clear the principles involved.

To show that air has pressure, fill a tumbler level full of water. Put a piece of writing paper over the top of the tumbler, and be sure the paper touches the edge all the way round. Then turn the tumbler upside down. What keeps the water from falling out?

Put a straight glass tube into a glass of water. Close upper end of tube by placing a finger over it and lift from the water. What holds the water in the tube?

Boil a small quantity of water in a tin can, fasten the cover on tightly and let cool. What happens to the can after it cools?

* * * * *

While these experiments are being made there should be discussion in which questions are answered. The children should be led to draw conclusions after each experiment and name as many uses made of this principle as possible. These experiments may lead into a discussion of temperature changes, winds, wind belts, etc. A barometer and weather chart may be made and studied.

Making a class chart to show the rise of the United States' trade from 1914 to 1934 (120, 203, 306, 307).

Reading about and discussing ways that the machine has made possible information concerning the universe thru visual aids (planetaria, astronomical instruments, etc.) (113, 124, 203, 206, 301, 302).

Evaluation:

The children should grow in their ability to make reports, outlines, use maps, and make graphs. They should develop an understanding of the changes man has made in his natural environment that have brought about more extensive trade. They should have some knowledge of the interdependence of nations and the inventions that have brought the world closer together. They should develop a deeper appreciation for the achievements in transportation of people in all parts of the world.

ASPECT 6. HOW DOES MACHINE PRODUCTION MODIFY ART, LITERATURE, MUSIC, AND ARCHITECTURE?

Things that may be interesting to children:

Music.	Sculpture.	Victrolas.	Plays.
Pictures.	Artists.	Theaters.	Books.
Art galleries.	Radio.	Concerts.	Libraries.

Suggestive activities:

Surveying to find what percentage of homes in the community have radios, phonographs, pianos, organs, and other musical instruments (118, 216, 220, 221, 306).

Telling about and listing the different types of musical instruments found in the community (118, 203, 216, 302).

Listening to music appreciation lessons over the radio (119, 124, 221, 304, 315).

Discussing and reporting on how the machine has made available in large quantities reproductions of famous buildings, pictures, and sculpture (119, 124, 203, 220, 221, 302).

Visiting museums to observe early and modern paintings (119, 124, 221, 312).

Making well-designed handmade articles for a sale or for gifts, using different mediums, such as crayons on wood or cloth, gesso, enamel, stenciling on cloth, dyeing cloth, etc. (102, 126, 221, 309).

Making a collection of pictures and objects illustrating design, principles of rhythm, proportion, balance, emphasis, and harmony (106, 119, 221, 307).

Discussing and demonstrating the selection and use of wall hangings and pictures in the home (106, 110, 217, 302, 309).

Collecting pictures to get an impression of skyline (119, 126, 205, 307).

Discussing the work of commercial artists—the difference in the reproduction of drawings due to modern methods (119, 124, 203, 217, 302, 305).

Borrowing exhibits of paints or prints to see different types done at various times, or to see the beauty of primitive art as well as contemporary (110, 119, 203, 208, 221, 307).

Selecting an appropriate picture from a group of standard reproductions for a place in the school or home (106, 118, 217, 309).

Finding interesting facts about artists heard over the radio (105, 124, 216, 304, 305).

Bringing in brief reports on current happenings showing modern trends in art (101, 111, 221, 307).

Making a study of factors influencing the art of any period, as available materials, natural resources and environment, religion, encouragement given artists, leisure, etc. (111, 204, 221, 224, 305).

Collecting copies of famous pictures for individual books (106, 119, 221, 307).
Exhibiting reproductions of famous works of art (118, 119, 221, 307, 309).
Making linoleum block Christmas cards (102, 221, 307).
Writing to the American Library Association for booklists and information about their services to the public (101, 118, 207, 303, 309).
Visiting the state library, university library, college libraries, city libraries, and museums to understand library services (118, 217, 221, 312).
Making a graph based upon figures available in *Industrial Census Encyclopedia* and *World Almanac* showing the annual book output in 1890, 1910, 1920, and 1930 (124, 203, 217, 306, 307).
Visiting a book bindery to see modern machinery (124, 203, 217, 219).
Making designs for book covers (102, 217, 221, 307).
Visiting a printing office to see use of modern machinery in making books (124, 203, 217, 219, 312).
Writing a play showing the development of the machine (102, 206, 207, 209, 303, 313).
Reading poems about the influence of machines (105, 124, 219, 220, 301).
Comparing the beauty of handmade toys in the stores with machinemade ones (106, 119, 125, 203, 217, 305, 309).

Evaluation:

By engaging in these activities children should begin to appreciate more deeply art, literature, and music, and be able to discriminate between the good and the bad. They should show more interest in playing musical instruments. They should have some knowledge of folk songs and develop a greater appreciation of folk lore.

From their activities in art the teacher might expect the children to be interested in beautifying their homes, making art collections of their own, and creating work of their own. The teacher should expect the children to have a greater interest in books by reading and collecting them for their libraries.

ASPECT 7. HOW DOES MACHINE PRODUCTION INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHURCH?

Things that may be interesting to children:

Cathedrals.	Musical instruments.	Church holidays.
Stained glass windows.	Church furnishings.	Religious symbols.

Suggestive activities:

Visiting libraries or museums to see pictures of famous cathedrals (119, 120, 224, 312).
Inviting persons in the community who have traveled abroad to describe ancient cathedrals (110, 119, 208, 224, 304).
Studying a cathedral to discover the beauty of its architecture and how it grew out of the emotional and religious feeling of the time; for example, Chartres, Notre Dame of Paris, Amiens (119, 124, 224, 305, 316).
Studying the radiating designs of rose windows in cathedrals as examples of good design and color or the design in other stained glass windows; for example, Chartres Cathedral in France, Saint Chapelle in Paris, the Memorial Chapel at Valley Forge, Pennsylvania, and Duke University, Durham, N. C. (119, 203, 224, 305, 316).
Designing stained glass windows (102, 119, 221, 316).
Discussing and observing (when possible) the machines which add to the attractiveness and comfort of church services, such as, electric lights, pipe

organs, cooling systems, heating systems, microphones, receiving instruments for the deaf, etc. (124, 203, 209, 217, 224, 302, 305).

Collecting pictures of or visiting historical churches in Virginia and comparing them with modern churches and cathedrals (119, 120, 124, 203, 224, 305).

Arrange pictures on a bulletin board to show a comparison of the old churches with modern churches. Whenever possible have the children visit both old and modern churches. In making comparisons, discuss the material used in constructing old and new churches; the tools and machinery used; the type of window, steeples, entrances, and furnishings used; the type of architecture; and the general setting of the building.

Reading about and discussing the effect of the machine upon the increased number and variety of musical instruments and compositions available for church programs (120, 124, 216, 224, 302, 305).

Reading about and discussing the movement for consolidation of churches and effects of the machine on such a movement (120, 124, 217, 224, 302, 305).

The class may discuss the number of denominations in the community, the number of small churches, the advantages and disadvantages of the small church; recent trends toward a federated or consolidated church; the advantages and disadvantages of consolidation; the effect of the machine on the building of churches, equipping of churches, and transporting congregations.

Reading about and discussing changes in church architecture due to changes in religious customs (Greek temple not for congregational worship; Gothic temples with chapels and altars; modern churches with benches, seats, etc.) (120, 202, 208, 221, 224, 305).

Discussing the effect of the radio and automobile on church attendance (113, 124, 202, 206, 224, 302).

Discussing the dependence of the church upon economic conditions (such as, failure of crops, etc.) (106, 111, 217, 219, 302).

Reading about and discussing the work done by churches for underprivileged boys and girls (120, 207, 224, 302, 305).

Evaluation:

By engaging in these activities the children should learn how the expression of religious impulses has encouraged the development of architecture. They should understand the individual efforts and sacrifices that made the buildings possible, especially the contributions of the people who labored years to produce their best work. They should be able to see how the machine age has produced many new discoveries that make church-going more pleasant. They should understand the important part the church has played in preserving art, literature, and music.

Following the detailed outline of each of the centers of interest named above is a list of *general activities* for the grade. These activities include listening to music, reading for pleasure, playing games, and enjoying beauty of line, form, and color wherever found. Under each of these headings a list of appropriate materials is suggested.

An examination of this phase of the course of study would lead one to believe that the traditional subjects had been completely ignored. However, in a separate section of the bulletin, entitled "Subject Matter Materials," a chart of the expected outcomes (with special emphasis upon the skills and

abilities) in each of the major subjects is outlined. A brief section of the chart is reproduced as Figure I in Chapter VI of this yearbook, page 139.

Presumably these charts are intended to guide the teacher in determining whether sufficient attention is devoted to the fundamental tools of learning in each respective grade level. In a suggested weekly program of studies listed elsewhere in the course of study separate periods in the program are suggested for language, arts, arithmetic, and physical education. One may conclude therefore that those who prepared the course of study did not assume that the entire curriculum would necessarily be woven into the predominant center of interest, but rather that the center of interest should absorb all of the curriculum which is naturally related to it and the remainder should be presented independently in the most appropriate manner.

Houston, Texas—The second illustration is selected from the fifth-grade course of study of Houston, Texas, a city which for a number of years has been at work on the development of an integrated curriculum. This particular unit consists of ninety-six mimeographed pages, so only a very small part of the unit is quoted. The major divisions of the course of study are:

I. Controlling Themes, Generalizations, and Objectives.
II. Overview of the Unit.
III. Suggested Approaches.
IV. Organization of the Content of the Unit.
V. Suggested Activities and Learning Situations thru Which Pupils May Develop Understandings of the Themes and Generalizations.
VI. Suggestions for Culminating Activity or Major Activity.
VII. Suggestions for Evaluating the Teaching Units.
VIII. Suggestions for Supplementary Reading.
IX. General Bibliography.
X. List of Visual Aids, etc.

A brief outline at this point of Section IV will indicate the scope of the unit. Topic I is outlined in detail but only the main headings are given under Topics II, III, and IV:

SECTION IV. ORGANIZATION OF THE CONTENT OF THE UNIT—HOUSTON, TEXAS [23]

Introduction

Topic I. How people lived in the Middle Ages

A. What is meant by the Middle Ages.

B. How the nobles lived

1. The castle.
2. Life within the castle.
3. Dress of nobles.

[23] Houston Public Schools. *From the Old World to the New.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 123, 1930-1931. Houston, Texas: Board of Education. p. 13-60. Printed here thru the courtesy of W. W. Kemmerer, director of child accounting and curriculum

4. Knights and knighthood.
5. Amusements.

C. How the peasants lived

1. Classes of common people.
2. Life in the villages.
3. Food.
4. Dress.
5. Amusements.

D. How the clergy lived.

E. Growth of towns and trade

1. Towns and cities.
2. Manufacturing and trading
   a. The work of the townsmen.
   b. The guilds of tradesmen and merchants.
   c. How goods were bought and sold in the Middle Ages.
3. Standards of value.
4. Travel and transportation in medieval times.

F. Health in manor and village.

G. Art and music in the Middle Ages

1. Metal and precious stones.
2. Tapestry.
3. Book-making.
4. The cathedral.
5. Songs of chivalry.
6. Folk music.
7. Music in the guilds.

Topic II. The Crusades—The first general step toward the discovery of the new worlds both East and West, one by the method of study, the other by the method of travel

A. What is meant by the Crusades.

B. The new world of the East which the Crusades discovered.

C. What the Crusaders brought back to western Europe.

D. Trade and trade routes

1. Camel caravans.
2. Ships.

Topic III. Increasing knowledge of science and new inventions important factors in development of interest in discovery and exploration

A. Invention of the printing press.

B. Increasing knowledge of geography and of science

1. Superstitions gradually giving way to increasing knowledge of geography.
2. Invention of the compass and the astrolabe.
3. Other inventions and innovations that tended to increase interest in the development of scientific knowledge.
4. Our knowledge of the earth and its relation to other heavenly bodies contrasted with that of the fifteenth century.

Topic IV. Discoveries and explorations resulting in the discovery of the New World

A. The story of Marco Polo.

B. Prince Henry the Navigator and the Portuguese explorations.

C. Columbus and his discoveries.

D. Magellan sails around the world.

E. Spain's part in the development of the New World.

F. France's part in the development of the New World.

G. England's part in the development of the New World.

In Section V the activities listed under Topic III (see above outline) are quoted. This particular section illustrates in detail how the science is integrated with the unit:

SECTION V. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES AND LEARNING SITUATIONS THRU WHICH PUPILS MAY DEVELOP UNDERSTANDINGS OF THE THEMES AND GENERALIZATIONS [24]

The outline of the subject material given in the preceding pages is merely a summary defining the scope of the unit. It is not organized in teaching activities, and it in no way represents the form in which it is to be presented to the pupils. The following suggested activities and learning situations are grouped roughly around the main topics of the outline but are not organized for teaching or instruction units. . . .

Topic III. In what way did increasing knowledge of science help to bring about the discovery of America?

1. Reading to find out how the increasing scientific knowledge and the new inventions of the fifteenth century influenced travel.
2. Reading to find out about the invention of printing.
3. Making a block for printing a word or a design.
4. Making a special report on the facts about the earth which we know today, but which were not known in the days of Columbus, by:
   a. Reading *Elementary Geography,* pages 35-47.
   b. Using the globe to illustrate the motion of the earth around the sun.
   c. Showing how day and night are caused.
   d. Finding out about the great divisions of the earth's surface.
   e. Finding out about the zones and hemispheres.
   f. Finding out how we measure distance by meridians of longitude and by parallels of latitude.
5. Explaining to your class what causes day and night and what causes summer and winter.
6. Drawing a diagram to show the relation of the earth to the other planets.
7. Preparing a report to give your class proving that the earth is round.
8. Experimenting to learn more about magnetism.
   a. To find out what magnets attract.
   b. To find how magnets behave toward the earth.

[24] *Ibid.,* p. 61-76.

c. To find how magnets behave toward one another.
d. To find whether magnets will atttract thru other substances.
e. To see what is meant by lines of force.
f. To find out if the magnet will attract thru other substances besides paper. Will the magnet work thru wood or glass or thru your hand?
g. Making a magnet of your own.
h. To demagnetize an article, heat it very hot. Prove this.
i. List some of the ways in which electromagnets are used in industry.
j. Can you cut off one pole of a magnet? Try it. Magnetize a long hat pin. Cut it in two. What happened?

9. Having fun with magnets.

(You can make some very interesting magnetic games that your little brothers and sisters will enjoy playing with, altho they may not be able to understand the magnetism as you do.)

10. Experimenting with the compass.

11. Making a compass.

12. Finding out how this idea of magnetism and its uses has developed; listing some of the things that we have today because of magnetism, showing the influence of the magnet upon our industrial life.

13. Discussing the importance of the invention of printing; the immediate results in western Europe; later results.

14. Discussing reading as a means of getting an education:

a. Reading as a means of influencing public opinion.
b. Reading as a means of enjoyment.
c. Amount of reading material now being produced.
d. Importance of learning to read more rapidly in this age of great amounts of worthwhile reading materials.
e. Means for increasing rate of reading without lessening the amount of comprehension.
f. Listing some of the most worthwhile magazines for young folks.
g. Listing some of the most worthwhile books that are now being offered for young folks.
h. Learning how to make best use of the public libraries.
i. Forming reading clubs for helping one another keep in touch with best literature for young people of today.
j. Learning to evaluate what we read.

15. Making a "picture dictionary" showing new words such as these: magnet, magnetism, electromagnet, invention, compass, astrolabe, nautical, sphere, planet, solar, equator, zone, torrid, temperate, arctic, meridian, parallel, longitude, latitude, gravity, lodestone, lens, and telescope; spelling correctly all words used in written composition.

16. Discussing the question: What was the most important invention or discovery of the fifteenth century? (Do not include land discoveries and explorations in the consideration of this problem.)

17. Discussing the question: How do modern methods of printing compare with those of the fifteenth century? Visiting a printing plant to find out more about printing today. Finding out how we print colored pictures.

18. Discussing the questions: (a) How did the invention of printing change the thinking of the people of the Middle Ages? (b) How does our reading change our thinking today? (c) Why is reading an important skill for us to attain?
19. Investigating to find out what led the people of the fifteenth century to change their ideas about the shape and size of the earth.
20. Science teaches us that man's conception of truth changes. Showing that this is true, drawing illustrations from the comparison of the ideas man held in the fifteenth century and those he holds today.
21. Discussing the question: What has been the outcome of man's experimentations with lodestones and magnets? Give illustrations and proof of your statements.
22. Finding out about some of the difficulties which the fifteenth century explorers had to overcome in order to carry out their plans for explorations? Comparing fifteenth century equipment for explorations with that of modern times.
23. Science tells us that much knowledge remains to be discovered. What discoveries do you think may be made in the near future? If man's knowledge continues to increase as rapidly in the next three hundred years as it has in the past three hundred, what can you foresee in the way of changed living conditions in the future?
24. Discussing these questions: (a) In times past, culture has always rested upon slavery and oppression. Show that while this was true of the Middle Ages, it is not necessarily true of America today. (b) Why is the difference between the standards of living among the rich and poor in America not so great as that which existed in the Middle Ages?

While the above illustration does not enable one to ascertain how completely all curriculum materials are directly associated with the unit, it is assumed that the major part of the curriculum is built around these units altho some provision is made for drill on essential skills at special periods in the daily program.

A Final Word

It is commonly assumed that the objectives of the social studies may be achieved by any of the plans of organization which have been described. Master teachers may be able to make better plans for presenting the materials than the one suggested in the course of study but the plan of organization adopted in the course of study should be the best plan which is feasible at least for the majority of the teachers. How then may the superintendent and the teachers determine which is the best plan? At the beginning of the chapter certain criteria were stated. Some of the most important are restated at this point:

(1) The plan of organization should facilitate and require continuous reorganization of experience on the part of the learner. Knowledges and skills should be acquired by the pupil in such a way that they will func-

tion in his life. Many aspects of this question are discussed in Chapter III.

(2) The organization of the social studies should challenge the teachers to put forth their best efforts. The teachers must recognize that the course of study is merely an instrument to assist them in properly directing the classroom activities. The course of study should stimulate and assist—not stifle or hinder the teacher (see Chapters XII and XIV).

(3) The arrangement of materials in the social studies should give the pupil an accurate and realistic understanding of society. The teaching of facts in isolation and remote from their setting may lead to hazy ideas and confusion instead of vivid impressions and fundamental understandings. A further elaboration of this idea will be found in Chapters IV and VII.

(4) The plan of organization should permit maximum interplay between the various aspects of the social studies. History, geography, civics, sociology, economics, and social psychology cannot be permanently separated into watertight compartments. The point is discussed more fully in Chapter IV.

(5) If the social studies objectives are fully attained the entire school curriculum must be affected. Social values should be sought in all subjects.[25] Consult Chapter IV.

The major goal in organization is obviously to show proper relationship of materials. The chief criticism of the traditional courses of study was their encyclopedic nature. Many facts were introduced item by item in more or less isolation and the larger and meaningful relationships were neglected. Since the proper association of events, ideas, and movements is one of the definite objectives in social studies, the courses of study must reflect these relationships and the constant analysis and synthesis of data are necessarily means to this end.

The previous experience of the learner can be utilized in building up these concepts. Wilson has pointed out the "elusive character of relationships" and warned that "the theory that things studied together must be related cannot legitimately be stretched to mean that things related to one another must be studied together."[26] New experiences properly associated with the old build up more vivid impressions by reenforcing earlier associations.

In constructing the social studies curriculum, therefore, the method of organizing the materials may greatly assist the pupils in working out significant relationships. Obviously, however, the teacher who directs the activities in the classroom from day to day has the chief responsibility in bringing this about (see Chapters IV, VII, and XII).

[25] Judd, Charles H. "Needed Revisions in Social-Science Instruction." *The Social-Studies Curriculum.* Fourth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1934. p. 15.

[26] Wilson, Howard E., *op. cit.*, p. 152.

CHAPTER X

SUGGESTIONS FOR PREPARING CURRICULUM MATERIALS IN THE FIELD OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

THE PREPARATION OF MATERIALS in the field of the social studies for the use of teachers has become a major task in curriculum-making in hundreds of communities. While in many instances there is confusion in regard to the chief values to be derived from such work, the experience of the last few years has fairly well convinced the majority of students of education that the project is one of great promise in advancing the educational understanding of those participating in the undertaking and hence in improving the quality of instruction given to pupils.[1]

In this chapter an attempt is made to present briefly some suggestions for constructing social studies materials. In any given local situation several decisions must be made before the actual construction of the course of study can take place. First, as discussed in Chapter VI, there must be agreement as to the general type of program to be followed. Second, as developed in Chapter IX, there must be a decision on whether materials are to be organized as separate subjects or with little or no reference to subject lines. The presentation which follows assumes, in the first place, that materials can be prepared for large areas of human activity and experience, for example, "The Place of Coal and Iron in Our Modern Civilization." The second assumption is that these areas or units[2] should contain a number of problems of social significance to large groups of our population, for example, "In what ways do our parents and other people make use of coal and iron? Where is the world's coal and iron supply found? Under what conditions does the coal miner live and work?" These two assumptions underlie one point of view in curriculum-making and definitely influence the nature of the printed course of study.

There are some curriculum specialists who retain the subject lines (e.g., history, geography) and choose large areas within each subject as the basic units. An example of such a unit in history would be: "How Early Men Lived." There are others who in fusing the social studies into a single subject choose units such as: "The Development of Commerce" or "Man's Relation to Climate." Several examples of the various types of curriculum units will be found in Chapter IX. All of these units have essentially the same mechanical structure and the curriculum committees which prepared

[1] See Chapter XIV for a discussion of the problems involved in continuous revision of the social studies curriculum.

[2] The term "unit" is defined somewhat differently by various writers. Consult Chapter XII for several of the better known definitions. Like other educational terms the word should be an aid, not an impediment, to thinking and to discussion.

them went thru certain steps.[3] The purpose of this chapter is to discuss these administrative and organizing procedures as they might be used in a local community. While the steps might be analyzed and described in a number of different ways, the following statement will be useful whether one is constructing units in the separate subject field or in the broader aspects of social science.[4]

Orientation of Members of the Committee Who Are To Write the Materials

In all too many instances teachers and others serving on course-of-study committees plunge directly into the work of writing materials without sufficient preliminary preparation. If the results are to be marked by the scholarship and usefulness which have been referred to in other chapters of this yearbook, it is usually necessary for a considerable period of time to be spent by members of the committee in formulating and discussing ideas and points of view in the area under consideration. Therefore, the following steps are suggested as means for orienting members of committees who are to participate in the preparation of a social studies unit or materials in a certain area of the social studies.

Presentation and discussion of the large problems with which the committee is faced—In this phase of the work a number of factors—among others, the size of the community, the point to which the whole program of social studies has developed locally, and the time allowed for the completion of the unit—will influence the type of procedure to be employed. Let us assume that the committee is meeting for the first time to consider the possibilities of various social studies areas for a particular grade, among others, "The Place of Coal and Iron in Our Modern Civilization," for Grade VI.

The initial presentation of problems will probably be made by the superintendent of schools, by the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, by the curriculum director, or by the head of the committee. The discussion should cover such problems as the reasons for choosing or rejecting this area, the place of the unit in the social studies program, the probable use to which it will be put by teachers in the system, the necessity for

[3] Altho mechanically similar, units vary greatly, particularly in classroom practise, because of the underlying assumptions of the content and because of the point of view of the teacher. A subject-limited situation, as a class in geography, would deal quite differently with the topic of coal and iron than would a class where the modern social problems point of view prevailed. Wilson has discussed this point in his *The Fusion of Social Studies in Junior High Schools,* Harvard University Press, 1933, p. 162-68.

[4] In Bulletin No. 31, October 1, 1932, issued by the Curriculum Laboratory of Western Reserve University, Henry Harap outlined a number of specific steps in the construction of a curriculum unit in the social studies. While varying in details, Harap's plan and the present chapter agree as to general outline.

cooperating with other groups preparing materials in the social studies, and general suggestions for procedure.

In setting the stage for the work, considerable flexibility should be allowed, not only in regard to the type of material to be included, but also in respect to the procedures which might be employed in developing the material.

Preparing selected bibliographies of adult material for committee members and teachers—Before writing starts, the members of the committee should be so familiar with the general facts relating to the larger problems involved that in the later preparation of materials they would know where the pertinent information could be found. This preliminary work will effect a great saving of time, especially if the materials are selected with an eye to their appropriateness as far as treating of the desired understandings in the large problems of the area is concerned. Hence pertinent bibliographies should be prepared covering important phases of the areas to be included in the final draft of the materials.

Setting up thought-provoking questions—The committee should develop questions which would direct the attention of its members, as well as of the teaching staff who are to use the unit, toward the important problems of contemporary life growing out of the area under consideration. Here the committee should include questions which will challenge the teacher to determine the points of view he could or should hold with respect to the particular function of this area. These questions should be a means by which teachers stimulate their own interest in further study and in preparing their own teaching materials in the area in which these course-of-study materials lie. Such questions in the unit on coal and iron might be:

(1) What conditions control the working life of the coal miner?

(2) Why are coal and iron key factors in the development of technology and hence in our modern industrial life?

(3) What effect upon growth of cities and the life of the people have the mining and development of coal and iron had?

(4) Should our enormous natural resources in coal and iron be conserved and developed thru government ownership, thru government regulation, thru private enterprise, or thru a combination of the two or three?

Determining the key idea or ideas—From among questions the committee must select the key idea or set of related ideas in the whole area broad enough and sufficiently fundamental to serve as a basis for the organization of the unit. For instance, the key idea in a unit on coal and iron might be "Becoming More Keenly Aware of the Chief Functions of Coal and Iron in Our Industrial Life Today." Obviously this idea is so fundamental and far-reaching that around it can be built in unified fashion the experiences and materials necessary to develop the needed understandings.

Adapting materials to pupils' needs—What adaptations must be made in order to bring the key idea and its supporting materials within the range of the interests and capacities of the pupils who will work in the area? For example, if the teachers on the committee should decide that the key idea should be finding the place of coal and iron in the advancement of technology and hence its effect on our modern industrial life, then obviously answers for such questions as the following must be sought by teachers before the unit is begun or during the time it is used:

(1) Thru what kinds of activities or experiences can pupils best grasp the key idea of the unit?

(2) What subjectmatter will be most appropriate in enabling pupils to understand the key idea and to carry to a successful culmination the experiences in which they are engaging in this area?

(3) Which of the activities suggested are possible and what subjectmatter materials are available? For instance, in certain communities pupils cannot engage in some of the most challenging and profitable experiences—for example, excursions to steel mills and coal mines cannot be made in many places in the United States. This does not prevent them, however, from securing interesting and valuable pictures of conditions thru carefully selected books, motion pictures, graphs, charts, and the like.

There is a school of educators who believe, not only that all curriculum activities and materials should be evolved in connection with pupil purposes, but that the curriculum should be made "on the spot." For the extremists in this group obviously no curriculum could be made in advance but would be allowed to develop as pupil purposes emerge. The position taken in this chapter assumes that the teacher's role is one of guidance. Hence, it is the business of the course-of-study committee to provide the teachers with a wealth of highly selected materials and suggested activities. These suggestions should be so rich and varied that each teacher will be able to secure appropriate and effective assistance in his task of helping pupils to formulate their own purposes and to realize them.

Summarizing the point of view of the committee—This summary should include, not only the materials in the sections above, but some of the discussion thru which the committee arrived at its conclusions. This statement of point of view should be particularly helpful to teachers who enter the school system at a later date and hence would not have had the opportunity of participating in the preparation of the materials. For instance, the summary might express such points of view as the following:

Pupils should be led to appreciate and understand that our whole civilization today rests on a framework of iron and steel. The development of these metals depended in turn upon the invention of mechanical power. The chief source of power by which engines are run is coal. The two minerals, iron and coal, reenforce each other in supplying men's wants. While iron and steel machines are used to mine coal, coal in turn smelts iron, and iron produces material for building the steam engine, the

fuel for which again is coal. Pupils should learn how the use of these minerals has changed our way of living and how thru these two minerals there has been a transformation from a civilization of hand labor to one of machine labor. They should also be led to understand that in spite of the tremendous advances we have made, there are problems of grave import in these fields yet crying for solution.

There might also be points of view expressed in relation to the attitude teachers might take toward a discussion of controversial issues, indoctrination, and the like. Ample provision should be made in this summary for the expression of minority points of view held by committee members.

Determining and Stating the Objectives

After the period of orientation, the committee is in a position to list for teachers some pupil purposes judged to be of value—objectives which, if chosen and attained by pupils thru their work with the unit, would be considered of both social and psychological value, in that they would contribute to the social good by developing proper growth. While obviously it is impossible for a group of adults to determine in advance purposes which pupils may set up for themselves, by drawing on past experiences or by envisaging the teaching and learning period when the materials are to be used, adults can suggest some of the desirable purposes which pupils are likely to choose.

One outstanding general objective a teacher has in any social studies unit is to assist pupils to draw from the activities and subjectmatter accurate, valuable conclusions or generalizations, and translate these as far as possible into desirable action. A generalization is an idea basic to sound understanding of the area of social studies under consideration. For example: (1) coal and iron are key products in a power civilization; (2) minerals of limited supply should be conserved for their more essential uses; (3) altho we have reached a high standard of civilization with the use of coal and iron, when all people are considered, much remains to be done.

Obviously, not all of the most valuable generalizations will occur to the course-of-study writers as a result of their prestudy or even as they write the actual materials. They should list, however, those that seem to them to be most essential. As the committee develops the materials of the unit, it should continue to add those generalizations crucial to the understanding of the large key ideas of the units. Teachers subscribing to the philosophy that permits pupils and the happenings of each day to determine in some measure the direction of the work will know that in many instances new generalizations will be added as the pupils work thru the unit. In writing the materials, *the point should be very clearly made to all teachers that every effort should be exerted to assist pupils in arriving at the generaliza-*

tions thru their own activities and study. The generalizations are placed in the course of study as a guide to teachers in helping pupils arrive at the types of conclusions which would be of most value.

In addition to the large general objective of drawing proper conclusions, there are more specific purposes which may also be attained thru a combination of teacher guidance, pupil activities, and content materials. These should provide direction (1) for building up proper habits of work, (2) for getting information upon which to base big understandings, and (3) for improving technics and skills. While in the highest type of learning situation specific purposes emerge as desirable outcomes as the work progresses, it is probably wise to list for teachers at the beginning of the unit some of the purposes that seem most important.

Examples of specific objectives[5] or desired outcomes in developing a coal and iron unit would be: (1) to learn to work cooperatively in thinking about common problems; (2) to learn about different uses to which coal and iron are put; (3) to gather data with respect to the consumption of coal and iron in one's own community; (4) to consider the relation of the coal problem to other phases of economy; and (5) to develop effective habits of study.

Determining and Organizing the Content and Activities in Terms of Pupil Problems

Both for administrative and for psychological reasons it is advisable for the committee to suggest for pupils important problems which they may explore with interest and value in connection with the work of the unit. Under each of these problems would be included both activities and content.

Selection and development of the problems—These problems, whether chosen by teachers or pupils, should be selected and developed in consonance with criteria such as the following:

(1) The problem should be significant in presentday society.

(2) The problem chosen should be one whose solution is of moment to most of the population.

(3) The problem should be one which challenges the interests of the pupils or one in which their interests can easily be aroused.

(4) The problem should be accurately and realistically developed.

(5) The problem should be treated in such a way that implications for the future may be brought out and discussed.

[5] Teachers should no longer be confused over the range and variety of terms which have been used to describe objectives in course-of-study and other professional writing during the last ten years. The following terms, among others, have often been used interchangeably by different groups over the country: objectives, general objectives, specific objectives, desired outcomes, aims, and purposes. The attainment of each smaller objective or the realization of each outcome should be a step toward a realization of the large purpose of the unit which is to lead pupils to an improved active understanding of some of the major and most socially valuable generalizations.

(6) Every opportunity should be seized to make appropriate and natural use of materials in such fields as history, geography, science, government, economics, sociology, and esthetics.

(7) The problem should be developed in such a way that it can be understood at the age and intelligence level at which it is presented.

(8) In the development of a problem which is apt to excite prejudices and bias, it may be wise to introduce first those aspects which do not call forth such strong feeling.[6]

The problems should, of course, be so related to the large key idea which the committee has chosen for the area that their solution would lead to a better understanding of the generalizations basic to this key idea. The breaking up of the larger idea into problems which can be successfully and successively attacked in the process of arriving at the understandings needed to comprehend the key idea is highly desirable. Some of the problems suggested for the unit on coal and iron might be:

(1) The importance of coal and iron in our daily life.
In what ways do your parents and other people in your community make use of coal and iron? What do coal and iron contribute to modern services and comforts? What is the relationship of coal and iron to our civilization?

(2) The world's coal and iron supply.
Where is the world's coal and iron supply found? Is this supply ample for our needs now and will it be ample later?

(3) Problems of a social nature in the coal mining industry.
Under what conditions does the coal miner live and work? What difficulties do mine owners face? What interest does the consumer have in disputes that arise between the miner and owner? What part is the government playing in these disputes? What should be the role of the government?

(4) The influence of the coal and iron fields on national life.
What is the relationship of the amount of coal and iron to the wealth and economic power of a nation? What is the value of coal and iron mines as far as development of industry and the carrying on of war are concerned?

Helping pupils in determining proper activities—Assisting pupils to choose the most promising activities from the large number which may be suggested is one of the chief tasks of the social studies teacher. To be most effective, activities which are likely to be closely tied up with the purposes of the pupils themselves should be proposed. If this is not done there is a very real danger that the work may become as formal as any teacher-assigned block of straight subjectmatter. There is no reason, however, why the wise teacher should not utilize those interests of pupils which are connected with the large social and economic problems that most vitally affect the lives of men, women, and children. In addition to the criteria suggested in Chapter XII for the selection of activities, the following points may also be of value:

[6] For discussion and development of these criteria, see: Bruner, H. B. *Some Suggestions for the Study of Modern Problems.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. 66 p.

(1) Suggestions for initiating pupils in the making of plans.

The more clearly pupils arrive at an understanding of worthwhile purposes in the beginning of a unit of work, the more valuable and effective the time spent in its study will be. In the approach or the initiation period, pupils, with the teacher's guidance, should set up for themselves one or more major activities, the carrying out of which will lead to an enhanced understanding of many of the problems suggested by the area. Some methods or approaches that might be used in initiating a unit on coal and iron are:

(a) Excursions—visiting a coal or iron mine or a steel mill in order to observe such things as the tasks at which the men work, the dangers involved in the jobs, the machinery used, the safety methods applied, and the methods in which raw materials are transformed into finished products.

(b) Interviews with dealers, operators, and workers in mines, mills, factories, offices, and transportation services.

(c) Interest in pictures. This might consist of studying films, pictures in magazines, newspapers, books, and the like, which would give interesting and valuable information regarding coal and iron.

(d) Interest in reading materials bearing upon the problems of the unit. This might range from reports in encyclopedias to current discussions in magazines, newspapers, and interesting books.

(2) Suggestions for major activities.

One or at best a few major class activities should be selected, the carrying out of which would involve every pupil in the group, would send pupils thru a range of valuable and interesting experiences, and would utilize the most challenging, accurate, and pertinent subjectmatter. Among others, the following major activities would seem desirable in the field of coal and iron:

(a) The preparation of an exhibit in which the pupils would collect, organize, write, and prepare materials that would give the story of coal and iron and indicate its effect upon industrial, social, and economic life.

(b) The preparation of a pageant to be given at assembly period which would emphasize the key idea of the unit, namely, the effect of coal and iron on our industrial life of today.

While it is not always possible to determine in the planning period the large activity in which the unit will reach its culmination, it is in most cases desirable since this culminating activity has or should have a pronounced effect upon the types of experiences selected as well as the nature of the content chosen for the unit. When the major activity of the class becomes the preparation for and the carrying out of the culminating experience, the efforts of each member of the group are directed toward the accomplishment of tasks that will contribute to a unity of work from a group point of view. Under such a scheme, experiences and ideas are brought into more natural and purposeful relationships. There is then a great deal of argument in favor of the selection of one or a few major activities as over against the utilization of a large number of unrelated small activities. The major project or projects will consist, of course, of numerous smaller but related activities. Where a major activity dominates

the work, there is greater opportunity for members of the class to become acquainted with the projects being carried on by others of the group.

Emphasis should be placed upon individual and group interpretation of common informations and understandings. For example, one pupil may have charted the coal and iron areas of the world and indicated their relative importance; another may have prepared a chart showing the steps in the mining of coal and in bringing it to the factories to be used as fuel; a group may have dramatized the story of coal mines and coal miners in which the joys and difficulties of this unusual group are made real to the other pupils; another group may have prepared materials to show the development of coal and iron resources as largely dependent upon an effective means of transportation; and finally all the members of the group may have attempted to show how their various contributions had indicated the basic importance of coal and iron to the modern industrial age and the bearing these could have upon the happiness and misery of people. All of these various activities then are brought together in presentation and discussion, in appraisal and in interpretation in the final culminating activity.

Organizing content materials—Beard [7] has pointed out that three stipulations condition instruction in the social studies: (1) the spirit and letter of scholarship, (2) the realities and ideas of society, and (3) the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process. Each of these three elements has been emphasized in preceding sections of this yearbook—the spirit and letter of scholarship in Chapter VII, "The Selection of Content for Social Studies Courses"; the realities and ideas of society in Chapter I, "The Nature of Society," and in Chapter XI, "The Utilization of Community Resources"; the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process in Chapter XII, "The Teacher and Classroom Technics," in Chapter IX, "The Internal Organization of the Social Studies Program," and in Chapter VI, "The Social Studies Program as a Whole."

In the volume entitled *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission* of the American Historical Association,[8] as well as in Beard's *Charter for the Social Sciences,* emphasis is given to the capacity to understand, to analyze, to choose, to resolve, and to act wisely. Beard emphasizes particularly the value of the art of learning how to acquire knowledge as a permanent possession which can be used thruout life. In both of these volumes the scientific method is advised not only as an indispensable method of inquiry and thought, but as an equally indispensable means of developing in students the critical spirit and judicial sense necessary to

[7] Beard, Charles A. *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part I. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. p. 2.

[8] American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. 168 p.

act with informed rather than biased minds. The subjectmatter to be selected by teachers and committees must meet these requirements and, in addition, should be pertinent to the development of the understandings basic to the large key ideas of the unit.

In many instances both primary and secondary sources can be utilized to advantage. In the coal and iron unit, for instance, the metals, the mines, the factories, and the people themselves can and should be studied, as well as articles and books written about them. Sources, of course, will vary greatly in reliability. Hunt [9] has pointed out that the physical mines and factories cannot lie, but that writers can lie about them. He says also that many people who write do so with a definite purpose in mind. Herodotus wrote to entertain, Thucydides to teach, Livy to show the pitiable conditions of his time by contrasting them with the old order, and St. Augustine to prove that the church was not responsible for the fall of the Roman Empire. If a teacher or a pupil knows the aim a writer has in mind, he should be able to judge better the reliability of the information, for without question the aim in most instances will color the selection of the content. Unfortunately, much material of low reliability has found its way into the social studies materials prepared by teachers and committees. They, however, are not the only offenders, as anyone well knows who has taken the occasion to examine carefully the textbooks and writings of people in many fields. Conclusions in social studies are not always a matter of absolute right or wrong, but frequently lie somewhere between the two.

Unfortunately, many of our textbooks and other source materials available for pupils and teachers are all too brief. Here course-of-study writers in local situations have a real opportunity in that they can glean and prepare more extensive materials which will better enable both teachers and pupils to arrive at what seems to be as near the truth as their sources permit.

In the selection and organization of content materials, two chief aims emerge: (1) providing a rich, scholarly, interesting, and pertinent content which will lead teachers and pupils to a realization of the basic understandings of the area; and (2) providing suggestions whereby teachers and pupils will learn to solve problems thru properly selecting, analyzing, and resolving the material, and, finally, thru acting wisely.

The materials should be organized around each problem in topical or running outlines or in narrative style. Where references will be readily available, the topical outline sometimes suffices, but where the original material is lacking or exists in an insufficient number of copies, the fuller narrative type of report is to be desired. Highly selective lists of references

[9] Hunt, Erling M. "History Method." Unpublished lecture, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y., 1935.

for both teachers and pupils should be provided and suggestions made as to where other materials, particularly of a current nature, can be secured.

Setting Up Suggestions for Evaluating the Work of the Unit

In terms of attitudes and appreciations, big understandings—The generalizations set up at the beginning of the unit direct attention to the large important concepts which should grow out of the work of the unit. For an individual to judge his own progress in terms of these larger understandings or to have it judged by others, some forms of evaluation in addition to objective testing must be provided.

Chapter XIII of the present yearbook makes many excellent suggestions for this type of evaluation. Thru observing pupils in action, thru noting the individual's interpretation of the work of the unit, thru his reading, his discussions, and his activities generally, the teacher can arrive indirectly at evaluations of considerable import. In the course of study, the curriculum worker can indicate different ways in which the teacher can judge the progress of work as well as list suggestions whereby self-evaluation can be made by the pupil.

In terms of specific informations—Curriculum workers should list here the types of information they think essential to an understanding of the particular unit in such things as:

(1) Locations and place relations (e. g., the location of coal and iron mines and their relation to industrial growth).

(2) Historical facts (e. g., information showing the importance attached to the Saar district in the past).

(3) Geological or geographical concepts (e. g., ore formation in the Mesabi range; ancient plants now turned to coal).

(4) Processes (e. g., how the blast furnace turns ore into iron or how coal is sorted).

Teachers should bear in mind, however, that the grade placements of certain informations and skills may vary with new settings. For example, the spelling of words considered of eighth-grade difficulty according to the usual methods of teaching has been mastered in fourth and fifth grades when these words have been needed by pupils in a natural development of a social problem on which they were working. Moreover, thru excursions and actual interviews pupils may be able to describe far more accurately machinery and working conditions on a fifth-grade level than they might on a seventh-grade level thru reading alone. Instances are on record, also, where even fourth-grade pupils have exhibited an amazing understanding of some of the problems involved in machine technology when interesting and appropriate activities have been employed.

In the whole question of evaluation, therefore, course-of-study writers and teachers may find that it is not wise in every instance to adhere too closely to grade placement standards which may have been determined when informations and skills were involved in patterns quite different from those which may be set up when real social understandings are being sought. The modern problems approach to curriculum-making in the field of the social studies demands excursions, interviews, actual contacts with people and things which have not always been considered in determining the grade placement of many informations under the old scheme where the four walls of the room marked the extent of the physical activity of the pupils and reading first in the textbook and then from a slightly larger range of supplementary material constituted the method. Intelligent and guided self-appraisal as pupils progress from situation to situation is an important part of the method and the philosophy which should be considered in any evaluation of the social studies in a modern problems approach.[10]

Steps Followed in Preparing Materials and the Form in Which the Unit Appears in the Course of Study

A committee does not usually write the different sections of a unit in the exact order in which they appear in the course of study. In fact, to do so would mean either that the members of the committee had worked thru the material with the pupils in an actual teaching situation or wished to impose exact procedures and the order in which the materials should be used. Obviously the previous experience of members of the committee with the materials involved in the area should be capitalized to an optimum degree. It is necessary, however, that altho a wide range of subjectmatter and activities is suggested, a large amount of flexibility be provided so that appropriate adaptations can be made to different teaching and learning situations. A corollary to this principle, of course, is that materials will be in constant need of revision as tryouts reveal weaknesses and strengths.

One form in which a unit[11] may appear in the course of study is as follows:

(1) Overview—A summary showing steps by which the committee arrived at its conclusions in regard to the key idea of the unit and the crucial problems to be considered in its development.

[10] See Chapter XIII, "Evaluating the Outcomes of the Social Studies Curriculum." For details on grade placement see Chapter VIII.

[11] Theory and practise differ somewhat as to the structure of a unit. Harap has proposed the headings (1) objective or goal, (2) procedure or activities, (3) materials or equipment, (4) assignment, (5) references, and (6) essential facts. (See *The Technique of Curriculum Making*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. p. 187-88.) Hopkins has reported the differences found in city course-of-study bulletins in Table V, p. 547, of his *Curriculum Principles and Practices* (Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn and Co., 1929).

(2) Objectives.

(3) Suggested activities or approaches for initiating interest in the unit.

(4) Organization of activities and content materials in terms of problems to be solved by the pupils.

(5) Suggestions for evaluating the work of the pupils.

(6) Suggested teacher and pupil bibliographies. In many courses, these are quite appropriately placed along with the content and activities.

In the actual preparation of materials no committee, except one which may want to dictate exact procedures and range of subjectmatter, would attempt to set up in advance all of the desired objectives, activities, and content, to say nothing of evaluating procedures for any given situation, especially for a whole school system. While the members of the committee, following their work of orientation, may list with considerable accuracy the general objectives, they would, as suggested earlier in this chapter, find other objectives emerging as the activities and content materials are developed. Hence the steps used by the committee in assembling and writing the materials for the unit may not follow precisely those that appear in the course of study as it reaches the teachers. The wise course-of-study committee, therefore, will attempt to see the problem as a whole. To do so the members of the committee must project their thinking not only to the point where the first draft of the course of study is completed but thru the entire period of teaching and learning in which the materials are used.

CHAPTER XI

THE UTILIZATION OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

MR. GRADGRIND'S PIERCING GAZE swept over the class until it rested upon the new girl.[1] Immediately his questions began to search for facts, facts, and more facts. What was her name? Why did her father call her Sissy? He must stop doing that. What did her father do for a living? A horse rider? Certainly not—perhaps he might be described as a veterinarian, a farrier, or possibly even a horsebreaker.

"Very well then. Now give me your definition of a horse."

Sissy blushed, stammered, and remained silent. She had lived around horses all of her life but never before had anyone asked her to define the animal in precise language. Mr. Gradgrind was greatly irritated. Here was quite evidently a very stupid pupil with no facts in reference to the commonest of animals! He turned to a pale, anemic boy. "Bitzer, your definition of a horse."

"Quadruped. Graminivorous. Forty teeth, namely, twenty-four grinders, four eye-teeth, and twelve incisive. Sheds coat in spring; in marshy country sheds hoofs, too. Hoofs hard, but requiring to be shod with iron. Age known by marks in mouth." Thus (and much more) Bitzer.

"Now, girl number twenty," said Mr. Gradgrind, "you know what a horse is."

There has always been this struggle in education between neatly classified statements of fact and the real manifestations of facts in life outside of the classroom. Textbook superficiality with its ease of management has been preferred by many teachers to first-hand experience with its obvious instructional difficulties. But there has been a long pageant of master teachers who have sought to keep education close to concrete and real things—Comenius with his picture books; Rousseau with his demand for contacts with nature; and Froebel with his gifts and games for the kindergarten. In this country the major prophets have included Sheldon, Parker, and Dewey.

In the United States there has been steady progress toward greater reality and vitality in school experiences. As early as 1838 an interest developed in agricultural instruction on the collegiate level. Manual training, sloyd, cooking, sewing, and similar handicrafts began to appear in elementary and secondary schools about 1880. Demonstration lessons in science, laboratory work, visual aids, and a dozen other movements have risen from time to time to enrich the educational program. But in many schools history and the other social studies have continued to be "things

[1] This incident is related in Dickens' best satirical style in the story *Hard Times*. The educational philosophy and classroom practises of Mr. Gradgrind are not wholly unknown even today.

HIS IDEA OF THE WORLD

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to be read about in books." Only in recent years have we realized that many of the ordinary activities of life are but miniature social processes which in the large have great economic and political significance; that attitudes formed in childhood toward the policeman may have a bearing on law observance in adulthood; and that the habits of the good citizen must be acquired largely by practise thruout life rather than thru a semester's exposure in high school to the intricacies of government.

What, then, are some of the concrete experiences which the social studies may find in the community? How may these sources be drawn upon by the teacher? What are some of the difficulties involved? The scope of the present chapter lies in the general field suggested by these questions.

What Is the Community?

Before attempting to explore the possibilities of utilizing the environment in connection with the social studies, it is well for us to get clearly in mind what is meant by "the community." To some this means the geographical area immediately surrounding the school. Others may expand their conceptions to include a section of the city, the entire urban area, the county, or possibly even the state. This point of view tends to limit instruction to such factors as mountains, rivers, roads, houses, fire departments, museums, libraries, factories, and town halls. Concreteness then becomes largely a matter of the geographical and the physical aspects of group life.

Other teachers extend their conception of the community to include also the people who have many social and economic relationships within these physical surroundings. With this broadening of view there are possibilities that pupils will acquire new meanings for such concepts as foreigner, laborer, banker, policeman, parents, businessman, doctor, mayor, alderman, and politician. By observing these persons in their daily activities the student may gain a better understanding of and sympathy with the contribution of each to modern society.

A third and less tangible aspect of the community is made up of the opinions, attitudes, prejudices, biases, and purposes of people. For example, it is one thing to know that the city has sixteen playgrounds; it is an advance to know that these playgrounds are administered by a park commission consisting of a given number of citizens chosen for so many years; it is an even further advance in understanding to know the recreational program that has been projected to make the playgrounds contribute to the lives of the citizens. It is one thing to know the general machinery of city government; it is even better to know the training required of the personnel of that government; it is still more important to know something

of the personal characteristics and social philosophies of those who hold responsible government positions. It is worthwhile to know that citizens are organized in labor, business, and civic associations; it may be important to know the qualifications of membership in these groups; it is certainly of greater public concern to know the influence of these groups upon the social policies of the community.

In brief, then, the community is not limited to the bricks, stones, mud, and elements out of which its physical manifestations are constructed. Nor is it limited to the people who live in the geographical area and who perform more or less useful social services. The community includes a third aspect, the climate of opinion, individual aims, and social purposes which guide and motivate the lives of citizens. If, then, pupils are to have genuine understanding of their environment, they must be given the opportunity to examine and to evaluate the intangible processes of group life as well as the tangible social machinery and institutions.[2]

Discovering the Community's Resources

Every teacher knows something of the possibilities of utilizing the local library and museums. Beyond these common outside agencies few have taken the trouble to explore. The first need, then, is to examine the community in a systematic fashion to locate those sources of concrete instructional experiences which are not recognized by superficial observation. The second need is to list the available sources so that they will be linked with the course of study and their possible usefulness readily recognized. The third need—primarily a responsibility of principals and superintendents—is to make the school administrative adjustments that lead easily to utilization of community resources.

Exploring the community—Every teacher of the social studies can make a list of certain types of community resources. By submitting this list to other teachers, the number of activities can be greatly expanded. Pupils can make other suggestions. Committees of teachers can summarize the possible resources of their own district and exchange with similar committees in other schools. Often the truant officer and supervisors who travel about the school district by automobile can tell of opportunities not generally known. All of these avenues of information are available to every school and should be utilized.

Still another method is to appoint committees of pupils, with the necessary teacher advisers, to make a community survey on the basis of a standardized

[2] In this connection see the chapter, "The Environment as a Primary Source of Materials of Instruction," by Fannie W. Dunn in *Materials of Instruction*, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. p. 14-42.

plan. Several of these plans exist, such as *Surveying Your Community,* by Brunner;[3] *How Good Is Your Town?*, published in 1931 by the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work;[4] *Suggestions for Outline of a City Survey,* prepared by the U. S. Department of Commerce;[5] and the *Community Appraisal Card,* published by the University Extension Division, University of Michigan.[6] Many survey methods will be found in sociological analyses of communities such as *Middletown*[7] and *Small-Town Stuff.*[8] Within recent years at least three yearbooks of departments of the National Education Association have included helpful suggestions on community survey technics.[9] Recently, local survey technics have been discussed in course-of-study bulletins, as, for example, in *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order,* of Ann Arbor, Michigan.[10]

Still another procedure for discovering community experiences and problems which may be useful for instructional purposes is that of enlisting committees of laymen. Such a plan has been used effectively in Madison, New Jersey. The superintendent organized a Social Planning Council composed of representatives of the churches, the welfare groups, the public libraries, the patriotic societies, and the civic associations. All religious denominations and racial groups participated in the program which investigated the fields of public health, recreation, guidance, motion picture control, relief, religious education, and civic planning. These citizens discussed such questions as the following: (1) What are the needs of our community? (2) How are these needs being met? (3) How can these needs best be met? Committees of laymen met with committees of teachers to develop units of work for the school curriculum. The results in vitalizing the thinking of the community and in coordinating educational efforts have been noticeably worthwhile.[11]

Whether the community survey is made by the pupils alone or by adults,

[3] Brunner, Edmund de S. *Surveying Your Community.* New York: Institute of Social and Religious Research, 1925. 109 p.

[4] Williams, Aubrey, editor. *How Good Is Your Town?* Madison: Wisconsin Conference of Social Work, 1931. mimeographed, 125 p.

[5] U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Suggestions for Outline of a City Survey.* Domestic Commerce Series, No. 45. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1931.

[6] Discussed in *Social Change and Education,* 1935 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, p. 68-74.

[7] Lynd, Robert S., and Lynd, Helen M. *Middletown; A Study in Contemporary American Culture.* New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Co., 1929. 550 p.

[8] Blumenthal, Albert. *Small-Town Stuff.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. 416 p.

[9] See: *The Principal and His Community,* Eleventh Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1932. p. 197-203. ¶ *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum,* Department of Rural Education. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1934. p. 57-63. ¶ *Materials of Instruction.* Eighth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. p. 14-38.

[10] Ann Arbor Board of Education. *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: the Board, 1933. "Local Resource Survey and Social Planning," p. 139-46.

[11] Reported by Superintendent Harry A. Wann in connection with Division VI, Study Group D, at the Atlantic City convention of the Department of Superintendence, February, 1935.

the final report is often made more meaningful by maps and charts which indicate by appropriate symbols the various resources and agencies. Graphic methods—whether charts, maps, graphs, cartoons, or models—often supply many pupils with abiding and enriched satisfaction. Teachers and high-school students in particular will find many ideas along this line in Knowlton's *Making History Graphic,*[12] in the Research Division's bulletin *Modern Social and Educational Trends,*[13] and in the recent report of the Mississippi Valley Committee of the Public Works Administration.[14]

Linking community resources with the curriculum—After a community survey such as described above the teachers and principal will find themselves in possession of a mass of data. The next problem is to examine these materials to determine those which can and should be used effectively for instructional purposes.

First, some of the data will be clearly seen to be of little direct use to the curriculum in the social studies. The total number of houses, the number of preschool children, and similar facts, while of interest to the school administrator, are not likely to be of primary usefulness in the classroom. However, if the social studies work in the third grade revolves around the topic "How is our district protected?" then teachers would be interested in knowing the number and location of police and fire stations, the possibility of visiting these places, and the probable nature of the learning experiences involved. In other words, chiefly by inspection, a group of capable teachers will first have to select those community resources which hold the most profitable possibilities. Consult Chapters X and XIV for further suggestions on curriculum construction.

The next step is to make these resources generally known to the teaching staff. Small conferences of teachers at a given level, such as the kindergarten-primary, is one procedure. Other teachers can describe in detail how they utilized a particular community agency and these reports can be mimeographed for general distribution. From the give and take of such selective activities there will eventually develop lists which may be published in curriculum bulletins.

A third step is to evaluate from time to time the suggested list of community contacts. New resources which the community has acquired will be added and those experiences which thru actual tryout reveal their ineffectiveness or unattractiveness will be dropped.

Administrative adjustments—In a dozen ways the program that deviates from the "bell-march-bell-march" routine of the typical school will call for

[12] Knowlton, Daniel C. *Making History Graphic.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925. 154 p.
[13] National Education Association, Research Division. "Modern Social and Educational Trends." *Research Bulletin* 12: 241-88; November, 1934.
[14] U. S. Public Works Administration, Mississippi Valley Committee. *Report.* Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office, 1934. 234 p.

ingenuity on the part of the school principal.[15] But any school in which adjustments are not made to a vital educational program is allowing school machinery to hamper instruction. Machinery, organization, and management exist primarily to further learning. An educational program which figuratively levels the walls of the school must necessarily change many traditional administrative devices and procedures. School executives who want their teachers to undertake modern instructional methods (and what administrator does not?) will have to provide the administrative setup in which these new procedures may flourish.

One of the first administrative problems in connection with excursions and school journeys is how to provide for the physical safety of the pupils and teachers. How can classes be transported with greatest safety? What precautions can be taken to prevent accidents at the factory, museum, or wherever the class may be visiting? Is the board of education liable in case of injury to pupils or to teachers? These are questions upon which existing summaries of school law are only of general assistance.[16] Several generalizations, however, may be helpful to administrators in seeking the advice of competent legal authorities regarding local ordinances and state law:

(1) School buses may not be used, according to many court decisions, for transporting pupils to athletic contests, moving picture shows, and picnics unless specifically allowed by statute. So far as the authorities consulted were concerned, no reference was made to court decisions regarding the use of buses for excursions either during or after school hours.

(2) School districts have been exempted from liability in cases of pupils injured or taken sick thru exposure while being transported to and from school on buses. Whether the district is exempted from liability when the buses are used for school excursions is still an unsettled question.

(3) In most cases the board of education has not been held liable for injuries received on school premises (excepting in New York state where negligence has been shown). Whether or not the factory, museum, or other place visited is temporarily "the school" is a question which apparently the courts have not been asked to decide.

In the absence of final decisions on questions similar to the above, administrators are inclined to resort to various expedient devices. For example, where no school buses exist or where authority permitting the use of buses for excursions is lacking, principals often ask parents to transport the pupils in their personal automobiles. Obviously the school district and probably even the principal would not be liable in case of an accident, but the driver or owner of the car could be held under the laws of many states. It behooves administrators to recognize the possibilities of litigation under these circumstances and to take precautions as to the skill of the drivers, the condition of the automobiles, and the safety of the route to be traveled.

[15] For many helpful suggestions see: *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School*, Thirteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1934. 528 p.

[16] The following section is based largely upon *The Courts and the Public Schools*, by Newton Edwards, University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 358-77, 378-401, and 520-25.

A second expedient device used in connection with school excursions is that of having parents give their written permission for pupils to participate in the activity. Frequently these written statements are not only designed to inform the parents of the child's whereabouts but also to protect the school district against litigation in case of an accident. The following statement illustrates the type of form:

> This is to certify that I permit *John Smith* to visit the Resto Furniture Factory with his class on Thursday, October 24, 1935. The school is not to be held responsible for injuries or accidents which might occur in connection with the above excursion.
>
> Signed: *Mrs. William John Smith*

While the above form is a wise procedure in the interest of cordial relations with the parents, it may not protect the school district from litigation. While Mrs. Smith has agreed not to sue the school district, her husband may bring suit. Even if both parents signed the note, Johnnie might sue with the aid of other adult relatives. Johnnie himself cannot agree not to sue because he is a minor. The point to be kept in mind, therefore, is that the best protection against litigation is the *prevention* of accidents thru the setting up of proper safeguards.

Partly because of the above difficulties some administrators transport pupils in buses and streetcars which are covered by insurance. Without doubt this procedure protects the school district and its employees. However, the fact remains that these common practises are designed to ameliorate the effects of accidents and are not focused primarily upon the *prevention* of accidents.

It is upon the safety aspects of school excursions and journeys that administrators need to center their major attention. Much can be done with the cooperation of the pupils themselves. Teachers have found it worthwhile to develop a safety code with the pupils before starting on the excursion. Such items as: (1) Do not wander away from the group; (2) Keep hands and clothing away from machinery; (3) Do not get on or off buses until they come to a full stop; (4) Do not crowd or push others—are among those which the pupils can readily understand and practise.[17]

One important responsibility of the school administrator in the utilization of community resources is that of keeping the board of education informed concerning the program. In Ann Arbor, Michigan, the superintendent outlines the plans of the school system in the form of letters addressed to the board members. These letters serve as a basis for the discussion of policies. Attention is called to the changing nature of modern society and the necessity of the school's using certain procedures to insure

[17] For further suggestions see articles listed in educational literature: Atkins, Blanche E. "Excursions for Grade Children—Their Need and Technic." *Journal of Educational Method* 8: 31-38; September, 1928. ¶ Crawford, C. C., and Grinstead, R. W. "The Use of the Excursion in Teaching Commercial Geography." *Journal of Geography* 29: 301-306; October, 1930.

to children many important economic and social experiences. With the leading laymen thus informed, the administration of the educational program avoids many inarticulations in school-community relationships.[18]

Types of Community Contacts

Whether or not we recognize it, the typical school exists in and is influenced by a definite social environment. Individually pupils are visiting the public libraries, meeting local political leaders, observing social processes, and participating in cooperative enterprises. When this chapter discusses the utilization of community resources in the social studies, it is not suggesting something wholly new or strange. Rather it is suggesting that social and economic contacts now often available to few children should be made available to all who can profit by the experience; that these environmental contacts should be linked up with the concepts, ideals, and activities which constitute a part of the school's curriculum; and that community contacts when under the direction of the school should have the maximum of educational effectiveness.

There are several ways in which contacts with community resources may be classified. From one angle these experiences may be classified as those which come into the classroom from the outside. For example, a businessman addresses a group of students upon the economic problems of his particular occupation; or an exhibit of textiles manufactured in a nearby factory may be put on display in the school assembly hall; or a social worker may bring motion pictures or lantern slides illustrating the work of relief agencies.

A second general type of experience is that in which the pupils leave the school to see the agency or activity in its natural setting. For example, a class may be shown thru a newspaper plant; or a small committee may call upon the mayor of the city for an interview on playgrounds or some other problem of child-interest; or a group of pupils may visit a slum area to gather information regarding a civic problem which is under study.

It will be noted also that under each of the above general types there are at least three subtypes of contacts: observational, participating, and contributory. Here we definitely enter the realms of teaching and psychology which are discussed fully elsewhere in this yearbook.[19] In the next section of this chapter an attempt will be made to make the foregoing discussion clearer and more concrete by examples of how teachers and pupils have used community resources in connection with the social studies. For explanatory purposes these examples have been classified as observational, participatory, or contributory altho some of the descriptions contain elements of all three types.

[18] Reported by Superintendent Otto W. Haisley in connection with Division VI, Study Group D, of the Atlantic City convention of the Department of Superintendence, February, 1935.

[19] See particularly Chapter XII and Chapter III.

Observational Type

Probably a majority of contacts between school instruction and the environment are primarily observational in character. The pupils are cast in the role of more or less passive listeners and observers. Most excursions are of this nature where the pupils are guided, for example, thru a factory, a botanical garden, a zoo, a dairy, or a firehouse. Observational contacts may be possible within the school thru the medium of flat pictures, motion pictures, exhibits, and lectures. The weakness of the latter type is that the process under study may be removed from its natural setting.

In an elementary school—Many modern curriculums today emphasize the first-hand study of community agencies in the early grades of the elementary school. The pupils visit a nearby firehouse or police station to observe how these "helpers" provide for the safety and comfort of all citizens. From these visits pupils acquire not only facts of considerable civic importance but stimulation to write stories, letters, poetry, and otherwise to develop skills in the fundamental processes. An outline of a second-grade unit of work on "The Fireman" from the course of study of Sioux City, Iowa, is as follows:

HOW TO KEEP OUR CITY SAFE

The Fireman

I. *Approaches*

Enriching experiences which aroused interest and gave background for activities: (1) discussion of "helpers" in a city; (2) stories read pertaining to the fireman; and (3) pictures brought into use.

II. *Plans made by the class*

1. Visit the fire station.
2. Go to see fire hydrants.
3. Observe fire tanks and fire escapes in the school building.
4. Make pictures of things we have seen.
5. Bring pictures from home.
6. Read stories about the fireman.
7. Talk about the fireman's work and help to us.
8. Keep an exhibit table for things we bring.
9. Use the children's bulletin board.
10. Write stories.
11. Make riddles.
12. Write letters.
13. Learn songs.
14. Play fireman.
15. Make a book of pictures and stories.

III. *Outline used by class as work is developed*

1. Sioux City's fire protection
   (a) Fire stations.
   (b) Firemen.
   (c) Engines and apparatus.

(d) Signal boxes.
(e) Fire hydrants.
(f) City water supply.
(g) Fire laws.

2. The engine house
   (a) The fire engine.
   (b) The hook and ladder truck.
   (c) The hose truck.
   (d) The rooms.
   (e) The slide pole.
   (f) The alarm system.
3. The fireman's uniform
   (a) Helmet.
   (b) Coat and boots.
   (c) Oxygen tanks.
   (d) Telephones.
4. The fireman's work
   (a) Fights fires.
   (b) Care of station.
   (c) Entertainments.
   (d) Inspections.
   (e) Study and school.
   (f) Fire drills.

IV. *Questions and problems which guided investigations*

1. What does Sioux City have to protect it from fire?
2. How many fire stations are there?
3. How many firemen are there?
4. What is on a fire engine and what does it do?
5. What is used to fight fire?
6. Where are the fire alarm boxes?
7. Where are the fire hydrants?
8. Where does the water come from that is in the hydrants?
9. What are some of the fire laws?

Each section of the outline was worked out in the same manner as above. The questions were worked out with the children.

V. *Reading material*

1. Books and stories read by the class

   Social Science Reader: "Jip and the Fireman."
   Our Friends at Home and School: "The Fireman" and "A Visit to the Fire Station."
   Citizenship Reader: "City and Country," "A House on Fire," and "Donald Plays Fireman."
   Unit Study Book No. 103: "Firemen."

2. Stories read to the class:

   Graham: "The Story of Andy Blue," "The Boy Who Wanted To Be a Fireman."
   Wadsworth: "The Fire Engine That Grew Too Old."
   Hardy and Hecox: "The Little Fireman," "Fire on the Farm."
   Kuh: "The Fireman."

VI. *The exhibit table*

Fire trucks (toy chemical engine, ladder).
Pictures of fire engines and firemen.
Helmets worn by firemen.
Books.

VII. *Children's bulletin board*

Letters written and received.
Pictures and captions.
Rules for our trips.
Riddles.
List of fire laws for city.
List of safety rules for fire prevention in the home.

VIII. *Oral language*

1. Our language rules
   (a) Be a good listener.
   (b) Talk one at a time.
   (c) Do not interrupt.
   (d) Talk so all can hear.
   (e) Let everyone talk.
   (f) Use sentences.
   (g) Talk to everyone.

2. Plans for our trips
   (a) Stop at crossings.
   (b) Be quiet on the street.
   (c) Stay on the sidewalk.
   (d) Be courteous.
   (e) Do not touch anything.
   (f) Be good listeners.
   (g) Come when you are called.

3. Discussion and conversations
   (a) Our language rules.
   (b) Our plans for the unit.
   (c) Rules for our trips.
   (d) Topics of the outline.
   (e) Questions on the outline.
   (f) Reports by children.
   (g) Fire laws.
   (h) Causes of fire.
   (i) Prevention of fires.
   (j) Rules for safety.
   (k) Where to find out.
   (l) Discussion of stories.

IX. *Written expression*

1. Letters
   (a) Permission of principal to go to fire station.
   (b) Permission of firemen to visit station.
   (c) Appreciation to firemen.

2. Stories
   (a) Our trip.
   (b) A fire drill.
3. Vocabulary lists
   (a) Our helpers.
   (b) Things on a fire truck.
4. Riddle
   (a) A fireman.

X. *Independent studies*

1. Yes or no. Write yes or no:
   (a) The fireman is our friend.
   (b) The fireman wears a coat of fur.
   (c) The fireman sleeps all day.
   (d) The fireman goes into burning houses.
   (e) The fireman cleans the engine.
   (f) The fireman rings the fire gong.
2. Direct questions. Can you write the answer?
   (a) Who rings the fire gong at school?
   (b) What does the fireman drive?
   (c) Who puts out fires?
   (d) Where does the fireman get the water?
   (e) Who helps the fireman?
   Helpers: Fireman.
   Truck.
   Hydrant.
   Policeman.
3. Selective exercise.
4. Completion exercise.[20]

In a junior high school—At the junior high-school level where the pupils are older, intensive and extensive attention may be given to community experiences. At this age, also, developing vocational interests may be utilized to motivate the social studies. The following examples from the junior high school of Holland, Michigan, illustrate chiefly observational contacts with the environment:

Our community has a remarkably interesting history and we strive to relate it to our activities. When we study "Why Communities Grow," "The School," "The Church," etc., these historical facts make our background most interesting. We visit historical places such as the site of the first church.

When we study the health chapter, the janitor takes us up on the roof and explains our modern junior high-school ventilation system. The class also visits the modern sewage disposal plant of our city. The superintendent of the plant appreciates this and says, "If you continue to bring your classes, we will have an intelligent adult population that will understand the needs and problems of our sewage system far better than our present group."

[20] Reported to the Commission by C. A. Bohner, principal, Longfellow School, Sioux City, Iowa. Prepared by Ruth Sittler, second-grade teacher.

When studying "Security," we visit our fire engine house. One fireman now expects us and lets the students experience the thrills of gas masks and sliding down the pole. He shows in an interesting way all of our fine equipment. We also visit the police station where the prevention of crime is carefully stressed. The fingerprinting process is carefully shown. The new modern jail cells and the classification of prisoners are extremely interesting as is also the police equipment such as gas bombs and machine guns.

When our city government is studied, we visit a meeting of our city council. The comments afterward are frank and often far from complimentary, but thought-provoking.

Our junior high school is organized as a republic with various elective offices. The citizenship department sponsors the direct primary, election, and campaign, thus giving actual experience in the things our book tells us about. As one student said, "Experiencing an election is far different from merely reading about one!" The constitution of the Junior High Republic is a fine starting point for the federal Constitution.

One year our classes sponsored a museum of interesting historical objects from our local community.

Our activities are many and varied, striving to give opportunity for the development of the various talents. The initiative shown is splendid. The posters are too large to send but one on "Uncle Sam's Family" was made in the form of a watch with appropriate pictures.

The guidance work is meeting with much interest. A nurse in our hospital now takes the prospective nurses on a trip thru the hospital, pointing out various phases of the work. A woman at the head of our business college does similar work for our prospective stenographers. Doctors, lawyers, and others interview large or small groups of interested students. Recently, the dietitian at our hospital said, "Wouldn't some of the students be interested in having me present my work?"

So you see, members of our local community help in all possible ways to make our program a truly community-laboratory course.[21]

In a teachers college—If instruction in the social studies is to include concrete experiences which are not merely interesting appendages, it may be necessary to begin with those who are preparing to become teachers. Courses are now being developed in teachers colleges to bring students in contact with historic spots and with the problems of presentday American democracy. These field trips should be serious undertakings requiring preliminary preparation on the part of the student, reference to study guides, and a review afterward.[22]

At the teachers college at Montclair, New Jersey, three field study courses have been carried on successfully. One of these, during August of the even-numbered years, covers the historic spots of New England. Another, held during the odd-numbered years, is spent touring Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia. The third course, consisting of ten Saturday morning field studies, is devoted to a study of many phases of life in the

[21] Reported to the Commission by Minnie K. Smith, principal, junior high school, Holland, Mich.
[22] Bye, Edgar C. "Peripatetic History." *Education* 55: 605-608; June, 1935.

vicinity of New York. Since the catalog descriptions of these field trips may be stimulating to other teachers colleges, they are included here:

Field Study No. 1—Levels of Living. What is the American standard of living? The answer is found by visiting middle-class homes in the suburbs, tenements on the East Side, luxurious uptown apartments as well as the resorts of the destitute such as rooming houses, missions, settlements, and squatters' shacks. Ventures in cooperative housing are also investigated as a part of this study.

Field Study No. 2—Racial Adjustments. Harlem, one of the largest Negro communities in the world, affords a unique opportunity to study the life of the urban Negro—his home, his religious activities, his education, his recreational opportunities, his ventures in business and industry, his contributions to art, literature, and music—and also the agencies at work to promote better interracial understandings.

Field Study No. 3—Foreign Cultures in New York. America in the making is the theme of this field trip. The varied culture patterns, characteristic of the foreign peoples who contribute to the cosmopolitan mosaic of New York, are the direct objects of the study. Synagogue and cathedral, pizzeria and hofbrau, theater and folk festival, native school and assimilation agency, music and personal experiences, street scenes and tenements—all help to create an understanding and appreciation of the materials out of which our country is made.

Field Study No. 4—Economic Institutions and Conditions. Making a living is the major problem of most Americans. How it is done is seen in a sweatshop, a factory, a hotel kitchen, behind the scenes of a theater, in the plants that produce our newspapers and our automobiles, and in the banks and exchanges of the money mart. Economic institutions and conditions are studied in the light of changing social life.

Field Study No. 5—Transportation and Communication. Some insight into the intricate mechanism of our system of transportation and communication is gained by visiting departments of the metropolitan railroad terminal, not seen by the casual traveler, the working sections of a large city post office, an ocean liner, a transcontinental telephone exchange, and a broadcasting station. During the trip the New York Regional Plan is explained by an authority using lantern slides.

Field Study No. 6—Government and Politics. All branches of the federal government are represented in the metropolitan area. Typical peacetime and wartime activities such as the weather bureau and the navy yard are studied. In the realm of local government, the city hall and certain political clubs are visited and various types of municipal services are studied in action.

Field Study No. 7—New Jersey Institutions. New Jersey state and county institutions are among the best in the country, but many citizens know little or nothing about them. Thru direct observation, vivid impressions are gained of what is being done for the deaf, the insane, and the pauper. The state capitol and a typical county court house are visited, and the Essex County park system observed and explained.

Field Study No. 8—The Prevention and Treatment of Crime. Crime is a fascinating subject, but a sympathetic understanding of its causes and treatment can come only thru visits to courts, police headquarters, reformatories, and prisons. The metropolitan area affords excellent material for this study.

Field Study No. 9—History of Manhattan and the Lower Hudson Valley. To understand any region one must know its history. Colonial and revolutionary culture patterns

are rediscovered in such places as Fraunces Tavern, the Museum of the City of New York, Hamilton Grange, the Morris-Jumel Mansion, the Philipse House at Yonkers, the Dutch Church at Tarrytown, Stony Point Battlefield, and the Andre region at Tappan. The route for this trip passes thru beautiful scenic country, on both sides of the Hudson, from Manhattan to Bear Mountain.

Field Study No. 10—The American Revolution in New Jersey. To be able to read the history of familiar territory in the houses and hills, the roads and rivers, is a source of unending pleasure and entertainment. This study explores the high points of the Revolution at Morristown, Somerville, Springfield, Washington Rock, Washington Crossing, Rocky Hill, Princeton, Trenton, and Freehold.[23]

Participatory Type

Teachers are discovering an increasing number of community contacts in which pupils may take some active part. A common example is the utilization of the public library. Pupils do not simply discuss the value of a library to the community, or content themselves with an observational trip, but they actually *use* the library much as adult citizens do. In other words, the pupils use the information and the experience obtained from the community contact to increase the effectiveness and the richness of their *participation* in local life.

In a rural high school—Pupils in rural schools may be unable to visit museums, factories, slums, and other urban conditions. In the small high school at Lennox, South Dakota, it has been found that the local environment could be made more realistic and significant to pupils than many of the social conditions which are characteristic of urban areas. The following description reveals the use of many observational contacts as discussed earlier in this chapter, but *participation* in stock-judging contacts and in the state fair indicates that the activities have been pushed beyond mere "looking on."

In the vocational courses the classes spend much of their time on judging trips, and visiting model farms, hospitals, and homes. Use is made of the materials distributed by the state agricultural college, and each year some students attend "short courses" during Christmas vacation at the state college. In the fall they exhibit and demonstrate at the state fair.

The class in American Problems gives major importance to farm problems such as production, surplus, consumption, farm prices, mortgages, rural social conditions, and national legislation. National and international problems and current legislation are examined in the light of their effect upon our community. In the autumn of 1932 the presidential platform of each major political party was secured and analyzed. By using radio speeches the candidates were "brought" into the classroom. In 1933 the Farm Act claimed the attention of the class. A careful study was made of the bill, and

[23] New Jersey State Teachers College. *Field Study Courses in Social Science.* Upper Montclair, N. J.: State Teachers College, 1935. p. 5.

then consideration was given to the effects of the legislation on our community. Committees from the class visited farm leaders and secured the actual blanks which were being used to make federal loans and reduce crop acreages.

To discover why the Farm Act was passed, the history of agriculture since the founding of our country was needed. Most of the pupils had relatives who had been among the pioneers in South Dakota. Farmers in the community could tell the story of what had happened to them since 1914. A visit to the county seat was made to study taxes and what they were as levied for each year.

When it became evident that the solution to the agricultural problem was international, study was focused upon tariffs, transportation, credit, supply and demand, unemployment, and government policies. A study of local marketing conditions involved an investigation of railroad rates, trucking charges, retailing, and wholesale marketing. Groups visited the local stores, the farm cooperative, the local railroad office, and trucking terminals.

While studying money and banking, a visit was made to the local bank where the officers explained the functions of their institution and its value to the community. Copies of blank checks, drafts, notes, mortgages, and the different kinds of money were shown to the class.

As a part of the study of public opinion, and the effects of advertising and propaganda, a trip was made to the printing office. There the editor showed the class how the paper was made up, where the news came from, and how advertising was written. . . .

Last year the speech class secured information from home-owners, businessmen, farmers, and state officials on tax revision which was the state debate question. During the legislative session, last winter, a new gross income bill was passed and the debaters followed its enactment and operation carefully.

Pupils have clerked in local stores at times to better understand marketing. Commercial classes interest themselves in accounting, advertising, and selling systems used by local firms.[24]

In a metropolitan area—In August 1933 the members of the Civic Pride Association of Greater Detroit appealed to the superintendents of schools of the cities in the area to promote a plan of civic participation on the part of the pupils. The children were to be known as Civic Pride Juniors and they were to pledge themselves to do all within their power to improve the cities in which they lived. With the wise guidance of classroom teachers and administrators, the proposal was modified to increase its educational effectiveness. The activities to be undertaken were those in which children would and could be active participants. Already the program has shown results in the sanitary and safety improvements which have been carried out. The following list, prepared by the children, contains many activities which are *participatory* in nature. A few of the suggestions contain the original and creative elements more characteristic of the *contributory* type of contact which is discussed later in this chapter.

[24] Wieting, C. Maurice, and McCoy, M. L. "Using the Rural Community in Teaching." *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum.* Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1934. p. 57-59.

POSSIBLE ACTIVITIES OF CIVIC PRIDE JUNIORS

A. *Healthful city*

1. Things which child could do himself
   a. Killing rats.
   b. Killing all insects.
   c. Keeping animals clean.
   d. Prohibiting spitting on sidewalks.
   e. Reporting all contagious diseases to board of health.
   f. Having board of health inspect homes that are not fit to live in.
   g. Reporting to board of health any violations of health regulations.
   h. Insisting on children coming to school clean.
   i. Removing unnecessary clothing in school.
   j. Bathing regularly.
   k. Keeping windows open while sleeping.
   l. Trying to get children not to play with rubbish left in alleys.
2. Things on which child would need adult help
   a. Providing smoke screens on all factories, large buildings, trains, etc.
   b. Disinfecting garbage cans.
   c. Prohibiting farm animals in city.
   d. Keeping ice in summer.
   e. Keeping screen doors and windows in summer.
   f. Reporting violations of pure food laws.
   g. Doing away with dead animals.
   h. Putting garbage in tin can containers and keep covered.
   i. Having public rest rooms.
   j. Having teachers and parents teach correct health habits.
   k. Establishing a municipal hospital.
   l. Getting toxin-antitoxin treatments.
   m. Getting vaccination.

B. *Clean city*

1. Things which child could do himself
   a. Keeping alleys, streets, and sidewalks clean.
   b. Keeping garages and porches clean.
   c. Keeping yards clean.
   d. Sweeping sidewalks.
   e. Getting rid of glass and tin cans.
   f. Cleaning cages for pets.
   g. Cleaning all vacant lots.
   h. Trying to get children to clean their feet before entering a building.
   i. Raking up and burning dead leaves.
   j. Putting empty cans and bottles in receptacles.
   k. Keeping billboards clean (billboard license ordinance).
   l. Collecting loose papers.
2. Things on which child would need adult help
   a. Providing smoke screens on all factories, large buildings, trains, etc.
   b. Disinfecting garbage cans.
   c. Prohibiting farm animals in city.

d. Putting rubbish in separate containers from garbage.
e. Having no dumps.
f. Making storekeepers assume responsibility for keeping the pavement in front of their stores clean as well as alleys in back.
g. Keeping ashes in ash cans.
h. Burning piles of rubbish.
i. Sprinkling all streets daily.
j. Paving alleys.
k. Appointing committees to see that school buildings are kept clean.
l. Cleaning homes thoroly at least once a week: windows, floors, woodwork, basements, and attics.

C. *Safe city*

1. Things which child could do himself

a. Repairing fences, porches, and walks.
b. Refraining from playing with matches.
c. Driving carefully.
d. Keeping glass out of streets.
e. Removing fire hazards.
f. Obeying traffic rules.

2. Things on which child would need adult help

a. Completing buildings left unfinished.
b. Locating schools properly.
c. Widening main streets.
d. Providing stationary street signs.
e. Providing police cars of same make (easier recognition).
f. Providing rigid building inspection.
g. Building of a viaduct at Conant.
h. Providing more fire escapes (ordinance).
i. Prohibiting parking on main streets (ordinance).
j. Prohibiting children on streets after 11:00 p. m.
k. Paving streets.
l. Keeping buildings in repair.
m. Keeping live electric wires covered.

D. *Beautiful city*

1. Things which child could do himself

a. Refraining from defacing of public property.
b. Planting trees, shrubs, bushes, grass.
c. Planting gardens.
d. Watering and caring for lawns.
e. Providing window boxes.
f. Trimming hedges and grass.
g. Keeping gates and garage doors closed.
h. Pulling out weeds.
i. Building bird houses for birds.
j. Planting flowers on vacant lots.

2. Things on which child would need adult help

a. Building better and new city hall.
b. Controlling of billboards and posters by ordinance.

c. Widening main streets.
d. Placing electric wiring underground.
e. Prohibiting commercial trucks on main streets (ordinance).
f. Repairing fences, porches, and walks.
g. Keeping building in repair.
h. Keeping signs off house and electric poles.
i. Providing boulevard lights.
j. Having monuments of famous men.
k. Decorating rooms artistically.
l. Decorating homes inside and out artistically.
m. Decorating shop windows attractively.

E. *Orderly city*

1. Things which child could do himself

a. Being a law-abiding citizen.
b. Protecting other people's property.
c. Taking care of books.
d. Protecting school properties.
e. Stimulate greater civic pride consciousness among people.
f. Discovering the qualifications necessary for each public office.
g. Developing an interest in and a knowledge of government to prevent graft.

2. Things on which child would need adult help

a. Having civil service examinations for officials.
b. Improving the post office.
c. Building a city water works.
d. Providing institutions for unfortunates.

F. *City of security*

1. Things on which child would need adult help

a. Providing schools for adults.
b. Knowing qualifications for workers in Hamtramck.
c. Providing better businessmen's organization.
d. Providing uniform labor laws.

G. *City of leisure-time opportunity*

1. Things on which child would need adult help

a. Providing a broadcasting unit.
b. Building a new stadium.
c. Establishing a Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A.
d. Establishing a symphony orchestra.
e. Building a city auditorium.
f. Providing schools for adults.
g. Providing more playgrounds.
h. Building museums.
i. Cleaning vacant lots and using them for playgrounds for small children.
j. Establishing swimming pools, tennis courts, baseball diamonds, etc.
k. Providing more library facilities.

H. *Other possible activities*

a. Dressing dolls at Christmas.
b. Making dresses for Red Cross.

c. Selling White and Red Cross Seals.
d. Making up Christmas baskets.
e. Providing music for organizations requesting programs.
f. Making toys for children.
g. Making Easter baskets for children in hospitals.
h. Making things (toys, maps, etc.) to be used by children in other grades (usually lower grades).
i. Writing letters to sick children.[25]

Contributory Type

The contributory type of community contact differs essentially in two particulars from the observational and participatory types previously described. In the first place the contributory type is what its name indicates, a definite contribution or addition by the pupils to their environment. In the second place the contributory type has no theoretical limits as to the amount of originality and creativeness which may be put into it by the students. For example, a social studies class might survey the recreational opportunities of a district, prepare plans and models to show how conditions might be improved, submit these plans to local governmental officials, and then help to arouse public opinion in support of the project.

In a rural school—Some schools, both rural and urban, exist in communities that are culturally sterile and static. When the teachers of those schools are content to let conditions continue, the chances are that the educational program is also static. Certainly it can be shown that a vital school program can reach out and enrich the lives of both adults and children within the immediate community. The following descriptions of two rural schools support this statement. In both of these descriptions observational and participatory contacts will be noted but we are at this point concerned with activities which are primarily contributory.

The first report is from the Whitmell Farm-Life School of Virginia:

A real challenge was given the principal when the Home Economics Club asked her, "How much can Whitmell farmers afford to put into their homes?" She could not answer the question with any degree of accuracy but took the question to her sociology class. They immediately asked that a survey be made of the homes. Great interest was aroused and at commencement findings of the survey were presented dramatically under the title, "Face to Face with Whitmell Community." The results showed the average distance of Whitmell homes from church, business, and school centers, the average working hours of the farm women, their home conveniences, and their means of cultural enjoyment. Desirable changes were suggested, such as using electricity as a labor-saving device, and the varied uses of running water in the homes.

[25] Abridged from a typewritten statement, "Civic Pride Juniors of Greater Detroit," by Anna Willard Winkler, high-school teacher of social studies in Hamtramck, Mich. Manuscript made available in July 1935 by John A. Jay, director of public relations, Hamtramck public schools.

A miniature farm home, practical for Whitmell Community and within the range the survey revealed our farmers could afford, had been planned by the home economics girls and built by the agricultural boys. This was placed in the center of the stage. A girl, draped in school colors, presented certain facts concerning the plan and cost of the house. She told how various courses in the curriculum had centered around this home in classroom instruction for the year. Thus in a concrete way the community was informed of the various activities of the year and prepared for the presentation of the ideals of the school the next night thru the original pageant, "The Making of a Citizen." This depicted the necessary cooperation of school, home, and church.

The natural sequel the following year was to idealize for the public the school's other big theme, a satisfying country life, hence the dramatization, "Crowning Queen Country Life," in which the whole school took part. The demand for such a presentation grew out of a community scoring, sponsored by Whitmell Community League. The thought was to diagnose community needs, then concentrate on the weakest spots. This diagnosis showed the one-room church the weakest spot. Immediately a community rally was held at the village church and an educational program was launched to get our people to think in terms of a balanced community life. "Crowning Queen Country Life" pictured the advantages of a well-rounded community life. Whitmell is now the possessor of a lovely brick church equipped to care for all age groups. . . .

It is very likely true that the commencement program of 1930 was the nearest approach to the modern conception of a constructive type of commencement activity that Whitmell has had. "Rural Progress Week" was observed. The purpose of this last week of school was to present to the community the facts revealed by a community survey.

A series of five programs was planned. The first came on Memorial Day when the memorial park was opened in memory of the Pittsylvania World War dead. The principal explained that the park was planned to provide the community with a recreational center and in this way to commemorate the heroes of 1918. After these exercises the senior class took charge and led a procession to the spot chosen for the planting of their South American garden. Appropriate exercises here were followed by a naming of the class trees. Their program concluded at the entrance gate of the school grounds, where seniors and alumni have erected an attractive gateway.

The audience then crossed the road to the church for the second program of the series. Here the findings of the survey were presented to the community. Each member of the audience was given an announcement of the commencement exercises in which the most important results were tabulated. The audience was turned into a huge class, learning facts about themselves as they read. This was followed by an address on rural problems.

On the following Sunday the commencement sermon emphasized the place of the church in the lives of the graduates, thus striking the third note in the trio that helps to bring about rural progress—the home, the church, the school.

The annual get-together meeting of alumni took the form of a garden party. The interest in the "garden" idea was enhanced by an account of South American experiences given by the one who had been instrumental in obtaining plants for the seniors' South American garden.

On the last night came the real vitalization of the commencement exercises, when the graduates, acting as a meeting of twenty public-spirited citizens, discussed the need for a new school building at Whitmell. Two years later a modern building had been erected.[26]

The second report of contributory activities in a rural community concerns the small consolidated school at Ellerbe, North Carolina:

The grounds and buildings, some years ago, were as severe and bare as could well be imagined. First attempts at beautification failed because trees and shrubs were not valued by patrons or pupils. By patient education the following results were obtained. Ivy was planted on the building. A gully in front of the school about ten by three hundred feet in width and length was filled in by the children and their fathers. Bermuda grass was planted over the campus, making two blades grow where none grew before. A reforestation project covered three of the twelve acres. Magnolias, given one each by the graduates, now line the driveways and bloom each year. Hundreds of trees were transplanted from the forests.

Most important of all, a slat house about forty feet square was erected out of waste strips from a sawmill, and, by simulating the partial shade of a forest, made the ideal condition for starting seedlings. During the years several hundred thousand evergreen seedlings of various sorts have been started. The second year they are removed to out-of-doors rows and cultivated for one or two more seasons. These rows now cover more than an acre. In consequence of this nursery the school grounds are an exhibit of tasteful planting. In addition, trees and shrubs have been given freely to other schools and to the churches of the community, and the homes are reflecting this heightening taste. Nearly a thousand plants have gone from the school nursery to the children's homes and many others have been removed from the woods. As a part of the work in agriculture, the teacher and students enter a home, talk with the family about the beautification of their yard, draw up plans with them, and actually help the family carry out the plans, using, as far as necessary, plants from the school nursery. This project has involved practically no money. It has been conducted without great sacrifice of regular school hours. It is encouraging to know that at least eight other schools have followed this example. . . .

Starting with a few poultry of the highest quality, bought with money cleared on an agricultural project, and using for a year a small incubator, it became apparent that a large incubator was essential. Eggs from two hundred seventy hens were too valuable to eat when the average laying capacity of the hens of the community was about seventy-five eggs per year. Men of the community formed a company with the boys who, for their part, erected a building and, within the building, the largest incubator that had ever been erected by other than factory experts. Ten thousand eggs could be turned with a single lever. Eggs from pure-bred stock only were accepted for incubation, and within a few years the poultry of that locality had been greatly improved. The incubator, insured, unfortunately burned. But with the impetus that had been given, the poultry industry grew so that each two or three weeks a freight car is drawn into the town and loaded with from five to seven thousand pounds of poultry.

The teacher of agriculture has organized in the community a curb market for the selling of produce to truckers who buy at wholesale and retail the goods over the

[26] Abridged from an article, "Commencement Activities of the Whitmell Farm-Life School," by Mrs. F. C. Beverley, in *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1934. p. 65-68. Supplemented by letters and materials received from Mrs. Beverley.

state and adjoining states. It is a thrilling sight to see the village square marked with piles of melons, baskets of fruit, or other produce. The truckers have been brought in thru the use of handbills, newspaper publicity, tire cover ads, and personal solicitations. Those who are able to dispose of their loads at a profit, return, many of them as often as three times a week, thru the season. Approximately fifteen thousand dollars worth of produce has been sold in this market during the past two years. And, more important, it offers incentive toward mutual effort in the improvement of crops.[27]

In a township high school—The task of introducing lifelikeness into the social studies thru concrete and useful community activities is not an easy one. Some environmental contacts are not worth enough educationally to justify the expenditure of time and energy. Because of these difficulties the success of an Illinois township high-school class in developing a local directory commends itself to those who are seeking educationally effective activities. This contributory type of community contact has been described in part as follows:

Some time ago a community and vocational civics class in the Township High School at Coal City, Illinois, studied the advantages to be derived, both for themselves and for the community, from making a survey of the town. Some of the results were to be made available to the public as a city directory while others would be used for class study. The school officials were handicapped by lack of information about the places of residence of pupils and patrons, and an inquiry among businessmen, persons interested in the local chamber of commerce, and church representatives revealed a similar need on their part as well as a pronounced interest in seeing the school undertake the task. To the pupils themselves there was offered the opportunity of securing first-hand information about their own town, more complete and better organized than could otherwise be obtained. A number of other practical educational values, altho unforeseen at the beginning of the undertaking, also resulted.

The class went to work enthusiastically in planning the project. The scheme grew until finally the pupils and their instructor decided to secure data, not only on the place of residence of inhabitants, but also on how the people made their living, ages of preschool children, church membership or preference of the families, and the amount of home ownership.

It was found that an organization would be necessary to perform the initial work, and the first step was to elect a business manager. The remaining members of the class were appointed census-takers, clerks, and inspectors. These titles indicate the work done by each group with the exception of the inspectors, whose duties were to examine and approve the clerical work as it progressed. Conferences with other departments in the school brought promises of cooperation from the commercial department in mimeographing the directories and from the mechanical-drawing class in making maps to be included. The local chamber of commerce agreed to help as much as possible, and the town council assisted by supplying the census-takers with credentials to explain to the residents what was wanted.

[27] Abridged from an article, "Progressive Methods in a Small High School," by Morris R. Mitchell, in *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1934. p. 23-26. Supplemented by correspondence with the principal of the school, Richard F. Little.

The subsequent work, done partly during class periods and partly out of school, may be summarized briefly. The initial data were collected on mimeographed forms. From these original sheets permanent family-record cards and cards for records of individuals were made out, checked for accuracy, alphabetized, and placed in permanent files to be kept in the high-school office. From these files the cooperating commercial pupils mimeographed the directory sheets, which were assembled and bound into books by a method shown the class by a local printer. The insertion of 10x22 inch blueprint maps of the town inside the back cover made the directories complete guides to the town.

Then came the task of marketing the directories. A second organization to take care of the sales campaign was necessary. The pupils first made lists of prospective buyers. The townspeople who had originally been canvassed for their opinions of the value of the project were first asked to buy and then others whose occupations made it seem probable that the directory would be useful to them.

The local demand for the books was sufficient to bring enough revenue to pay the expenses of the cooperating pupils to Chicago, a distance of seventy miles, by a special bus to see a number of the places that had been studied during the course. For example, most of the pupils for the first time in their lives saw the Board of Trade in operation, the Field Museum of Natural History, the Art Institute, the University of Chicago, and the ghetto.

A second valuable byproduct was the opportunity afforded the new class in the following year to raise a considerable portion of the funds required for a similar excursion by conducting another sales campaign of those directories left on hand from the previous year. This time the campaign was carried on by mail, and the directories were sold to businessmen in neighboring towns who drew some of their patronage from Coal City and who wished mailing lists.

A number of desirable outcomes resulted from this project. The community itself gained in the following ways: (1) A real need for classified information was met by furnishing directories to the people of the town and of neighboring towns. (2) School officials obtained desirable data thru the card files created. (3) Churches obtained valuable information concerning the religious preferences of the people. (4) Worthwhile facts about the percentage of home ownership were made available to business interests. (5) As a result of this project a plan for numbering houses was worked out by the town government. (6) The citizens of the town were well impressed with the practical value of this school work and consequently were favorably influenced in their opinions of the school.

Most important, however, were the educational values resulting for the pupils. In addition to increasing their interest in the course, this project made the pupils more thoroly acquainted with their community than would have been possible in any other way. Pupils in cooperating departments had actual problems to supplement their courses and were thus enabled to see the practical value of some parts of their studies, which might otherwise have been mere bookish problems to them. The pupils obtained an idea of a frequently used office device thru the development of card indexes. They secured practise in teamwork. They gained an introduction to business methods. It was surprising to find how great was the need for information concerning business; for example, the business manager had never before written a check. The pupils gained experience in bookbinding and training in methods of good salesmanship. The trip to Chicago yielded educational returns of self-evident value. Needless to say, for all the members of a class such results are worthwhile. For the newer-type pupils,

however, who are frequently found in high schools today—the pupil to whom abstract studies are ill-adapted—such a concrete project may offer the only part of the course with any real meaning.[28]

In an industrial high school—At one time it was customary to include fantastic and unreal problems in arithmetic books. It was believed that the mental labor demanded by these problems trained the minds of the students. Psychologists eventually convinced teachers that there were enough difficult *practical* problems in real life to make it unnecessary for textbook writers to do this. A similar lesson has but recently been learned in connection with the social studies. At one time hours were spent in trying to understand intricate documents which could be of little use to anyone but scholars, while important facts about everyday citizenship were seriously neglected.

An illustration of the practical use of the community in the development of social understanding is that of the survey made by the Industrial High School of Birmingham, Alabama.[29] In 1933, desiring to make the commencement programs more vital, the principal asked the members of the graduating class to suggest projects for the commencement exercises. One suggestion was that a study be made of the living conditions of the people near the school and that the report of this survey be used at graduation time. This idea was chosen for the following semester.

First the 228 members of the class formulated the schedule of items which were to be used in the survey. Each question in the schedule was discussed and from a much larger number the following items were chosen:

(1) Number of houses in each block.
(2) Number of persons in each block.
(3) Number of rooms in each house.
(4) Number of families in each house.
(5) Number of persons in each family.
(6) Number of persons employed and number unemployed.
(7) Number of children in each house.
(8) Number of children of school age.
(9) Number of children in school.
(10) Number of college graduates.
(11) Number of high-school graduates.
(12) Number of elementary-school graduates.
(13) Number of illiterates.
(14) Number of adults attending night school.
(15) The average level of education in each block.
(16) Number of skilled and unskilled laborers.
(17) Number of persons in professional occupations.
(18) Number of persons owning homes in block.

[28] Gossard, A. P. "High-School Pupils Study Their Community." *School Review* 43: 268-72; April, 1935.

[29] Based upon a report by A. H. Parker, principal.

(19) Number of persons buying homes in which they live.
(20) Number of houses with bathtubs, autos, radios, telephones, and electrical appliances.
(21) Number of homes with gardens.
(22) Number of homes having cats, dogs, and chickens.
(23) Number with casualty, fire, and life insurance.
(24) The amount of sickness in each house for the past year.
(25) Number having doctors during the past year.
(26) Number of regular church attendants.
(27) Sunday activities of the non-church attendants.
(28) Number taking magazines and daily newspapers.
(29) Number of books in each house.
(30) Number and kinds of business places in each block.

One student was placed in charge of each of the twenty-four blocks. This leader was carefully chosen and then given special training in collecting answers to the questions on the schedule. In collecting these data the block-chairman took different students with him each day so that as many as possible would have an opportunity to participate in the survey. The daily vocational period of one and one-half hours was used for most of this outside work.

After the facts had been collected the twenty-four leaders made the tabulations. Twelve members of the class, including those most skilled in public speaking, were chosen to present the report at the commencement exercises. Thru the use of lantern slides the speakers were able to point out many interesting comparisons and contrasts between the various blocks of the area. For a full hour these students held the undivided attention of an audience of almost two thousand people.

Recently the data collected in this survey were turned over to the local director of the federal program for low-cost housing projects. Six of the twenty-four blocks have been cleared in preparation for the construction of low-cost housing units.

The next graduating class plans to make a survey of the positions and accomplishments of the more than three thousand previous graduates of the school.

In private schools—During the 1935 summer vacation the American Friends Service Committee sponsored a camp for the purpose of bringing students of the Friends' secondary schools in contact with real social and economic problems. The plan was designed to present the social conditions under circumstances which would provide for study and for reconstructive efforts. The activities of the Junior Friends Service Camp have been described as follows:

There were twenty-one boys in camp coming from ten schools, located, with one exception, in or around Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington. Four counselors,

young men in college, a trained nurse, and a dietitian worked with the director in conducting the camp.

We lived in a barn and used an old farm house with a screened annex as our dining room, meeting room, and social room. We had use of only the kitchen and one other room, the other rooms being used as the offices of the federal officials at the head of the Westmoreland Homestead, on which our camp was located. This gave us many valuable contacts with the men at the head of this project and we found them most cooperative and helpful.

The Westmoreland Homestead is a federal government project located about nine miles southwest of Greensburg, Pennsylvania, in one of the largest bituminous coal areas of this state. There will eventually be two hundred fifty families living in this cooperative community. In the center of the thirteen hundred acre tract the community has set aside fourteen acres as the community center. These fourteen acres will eventually contain the school and administrative building as well as the recreational grounds. The community center is bounded by four streets, making a square.

Our task was the building of these streets. The job gave the boys an opportunity to work for the good of the community. It threw them in contact with many of the homesteaders. It enabled them to learn the meaning of hard physical labor such as most of these homesteaders had known all their lives, tho their work had, for the most part, been in mines. Our boys got up at six and had breakfast and reported on the project at seven. They worked until noon at hard labor with picks, shovels, and wheelbarrows. They ate lunch and rested for an hour and then went back to work until three-thirty. These hours were kept regularly five days a week, with half a day's work on Saturday and no work on Sunday. From three-thirty until six the time was their own and was usually spent in some form of recreation such as chess, volley ball, horseshoes, reading, writing, and, in many cases, in study. In the evening, four nights a week, there were discussions or lectures followed by a discussion.

The lectures were upon a variety of topics, and were given either by the director of the camp, by the counselors, or by outside speakers. A brief list of some of the topics will indicate the range of interests touched upon. The director gave a series of lectures based upon psychology and sociology, having in mind the thought that any true understanding of man and of his activities comes only thru a careful study of his fundamental drives and impulses, and of careful analyses of what he does and the reasons therefore. Each of the counselors lectured upon topics for which his training had best prepared him, and these included such topics as "Interpretations of History," "Share-croppers," "The Bituminous Coal Industry," "Conflicts in Religious Thought," "Peace and Peace Caravaning."

In addition we had the following speakers, among others, who led discussions on some of the following subjects: Richard Gregg, who lived for four years in India, and was for several months a member of Gandhi's household, lectured on "The Power of Non-Violence." Barrett Brown, head of the Labor College, Oxford, England, led a discussion on the "Adult Education Movement in England." Tom Jones, president of Fiske University, was another speaker who was both interesting and stimulating. We also had Douglas Steere, head of the Department of Philosophy, Haverford College, lecture to us on "Opportunities and Needs for Service." Brooke Anderson, of Brown University, told us of his personal experiences in the War and of the thoughts that have led him to oppose wars now.

It is obvious that any attempts at evaluation will be hard. Many of the things we hoped to accomplish cannot be measured except as the boy lives his life. Nor can we

measure accurately how far the horizons in each case were lifted. But it goes without saying that the physical gain was great. Some of the boys, according to carefully kept records, gained from ten to fifteen pounds, and all of them showed some gain. They were beautifully tanned and as "hard as nails." In addition, they had gained a little of the laborer's point of view; they knew the meaning of hard physical labor, of persevering despite fatigue, and of the monotony that for many can never be relieved. They were able to see at first hand the difference between the environment from which they came and that of the miners and other homesteaders. They had an opportunity to talk with the miners and get their point of view and to visit a mine and see the working conditions.

The boys associated with the homesteaders in their Sunday schools and churches and got to know them from that side also. We were given real opportunities to observe the government officials as they went about their tasks, and lectures by some of these officials gave us more intimate knowledge of the reason for the homestead and the problems involved. The opportunities for reading (we had a very fine library borrowed from George School) as well as the lectures and discussions afforded ample opportunity for mental growth. Many of the boys learned a bit about sacrificial living, for all of them paid $75 for the eight weeks, whereas they could have been living a life of ease at some resort or by traveling. They gained an intimate knowledge of "kitchen police" duty, for we did all such work, as well as all our own laundry. And they found it a wonderful experience to associate on such intimate terms with students from other schools.

In addition, they had a chance to see the development of a cooperative movement and were given a lot of help in understanding the advantages and disadvantages of such methods. We also shared in some of the recreations of the community and the villagers shared some of ours.[30]

Some Cautions with Regard to the Use of Community Resources

The foregoing sections have revealed the possibility of introducing concreteness into situations which may ordinarily end with mere memorization of textbooks or the superficial manipulation of words. Yet the entrance of teachers into unfamiliar activities outside of typical school practise has its dangers. In the classroom the instructional activities are usually rigidly selected and the physical and mental condition of the pupils carefully supervised. Outside contacts bring with them all of the hazards of propaganda and transportation. A few suggestions with regard to these difficulties are pertinent at this point.

Ameliorating the Effects of Unwelcome Propaganda

In dealing with the problem of propaganda there are differences of opinion among educators. Some would admit all forms of propaganda, with due consideration of the maturity of the learners, provided the teacher is free to "condition" pupils against all possible harmful effects. Other teachers would rigidly exclude any outside agency or influence with any possible

[30] Based upon a letter from Richard H. McFeely, a teacher in the George School, who served as director of the camp.

propaganda elements. Still others would admit available community resources after each case had been passed on its individual merits. To the latter group apparently belongs the principal who formulated the following suggestions in regard to advertising materials:

(1) Remember that the ultimate aim of the advertiser is profit; that there is really no such thing as "getting something for nothing" in advertising.

(2) Refuse to permit the school to become the commercial base for the distribution of samples.

(3) Have all advertising trademarks and manufacturers' names covered or relabeled to avoid influencing the pupil in favor of certain brands and to free the school from the charge of permitting special commercial advertising.

(4) Avoid the multiplicity of "days" and "weeks" sponsored by self-seeking commercial groups and the materials that go with them.

(5) Weigh the usefulness of all illustrative material, especially from "pressure groups," and accept such material *only when ethical,* no matter how useful in the teaching process.

(6) Direct teachers to minimize requests by pupils for circular material not originally intended for pupils.

(7) As the administrative and supervisory leader, the principal can wield a direct influence to the end that nowhere will unethical advertising or subversive propaganda be found as teaching aids in any classroom.[31]

In cases where the individual administrator is unwilling to pass upon the merits of available non-school aids, he may wish to sponsor a reviewing or advisory committee of teachers and others. The following guides for such a committee, while outlined for elementary education, are adaptable in their basic outline to high schools and colleges. A plan for sifting propaganda is as follows:

(1) Firms wishing to distribute free samples should be requested to make their distribution outside the school grounds. The samples distributed have small economic value to any individual recipient, and it is not the function of the school to go out and find similar material to distribute.

(2) In the case of literature which is considered by the advisory group to have educational value, literature presenting the opposite side of the case if a controversial question is involved, or literature from other firms if the propaganda is of the "salesman" type, should be given out at the same time.

(3) Accessories for pupils bearing printed advertising cannot be defended. These should be distributed by representatives of the advertiser outside the school premises.

(4) Textbooks should be reviewed by the advisory group or by the regular textbook committee in order to discover whether any propaganda has been inserted.

(5) Of all the intrusions on regular school activities, contests are probably the greatest source of annoyance to school administrators. If the activity is one of educa-

[31] Based upon suggestions in the following article: Berman, Samuel. "Advertising in the Classroom." *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School.* Thirteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1934. p. 456-59.

tional value, the school official will see that it is put in the school by the school officials themselves and the objections often found in contests eliminated.

(6) Persons who are invited by themselves or by outside sponsors to speak before the pupils should be investigated before they are allowed to foist their ideas on the pupils. Some member of the advisory group or a reliable judge outside the group should hear what the speaker offers in his talks and decide, first, whether the material can contribute to the educational program of the school and, second, whether the opposite side of the case can be provided either at the time of the talk or soon afterward.

(7) Propaganda for special days and weeks has not been so embarrassing a problem, but again the necessity arises for careful study as to how much these occasions can contribute to the program of the school and how much time, if any, can justifiably be spent on any one of them.

(8) Mass utilization of pupils for outside activities seems to be one of the most pernicious forms of propaganda and one of the hardest to cope with. If the committee feels that the activity does not meet the requirements of its basic policies, participation should be avoided.[32]

There are possibilities of laying too much stress upon the dangers of propaganda. Teachers realize that, both inside and outside of the school, children and adults are constantly under pressures of various kinds.[33] There is much to be said for dealing with these pressures in the school where they may be examined judicially and appraised for what they are worth. A number of suggestions on this problem are to be found in special reports of the National Education Association.[34]

The Management of Excursions and Field Trips

If pupils are to see various social processes and activities in their natural settings, they will of necessity have to leave the four walls of the classroom. In some schools emphasis is placed upon such trips by individual students during vacations or non-school hours. Thru parent-teacher association meetings, parents are informed of the educational values to be obtained from family trips to places of historical and social interest. Unfortunately a modern educational program cannot depend solely upon these unsystematic efforts.

In recent years trips and excursions have become popular particularly in Germany and other European countries. In the United States there is an apparently increased interest in this device for enriching instruction. If these journeys are to be most successful, they must be conducted with

[32] Adapted from suggestions in the following article: Parker, Howard L. "A Plan for Sifting Propaganda in the Schools." *Elementary School Journal* 33: 277-82; December, 1932.

[33] See: Waller, J. Flint. *Outside Demands and Pressures on the Public Schools.* Contributions to Education, No. 542. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 151 p.

[34] National Education Association. *Report of the Committee on Propaganda in the Schools.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1929. 47 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education.* Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 333-44.

certain administrative points clearly in mind. Some of these guides have been formulated as follows:

(1) Short trips with inexperienced people

(a) Do not spend too much time getting to the scene of action.
(b) Avoid crowding too much into a single trip.
(c) Provide opportunity for each member of the group to participate actively.
(d) Keep the whole proposition as simple as possible.

(2) Elaborate trips of one or two nights

(a) Surround the trip with a glamor of importance.
(b) The leader of the party must know his ground perfectly.
(c) Keep up the action and the interest.
(d) The schedule should not hurry things too much.

(3) Excursions involving two weeks or more of travel

(a) Plan the entire excursion from beginning to end.
(b) Do not announce to the members of the party all of the plans—surprises add to the interest.
(c) Give all members of the party periods of complete freedom from the schedule.
(d) Provide each individual with a skeleton schedule which indicates stopping places and probable time allotted to each stop.
(e) Each morning give out a typed summary of the day's activities.
(f) Arrange hotel accommodations so as to avoid unexpected difficulties with baggage or unnecessary confusion.

(4) Excursions with experienced adults including distinguished individuals and experts

(a) Avoid the usual pedagogical methods required with younger students.
(b) Provide a simple outline of the excursion but with the minimum of papers, paraphernalia, and machinery.
(c) Remember that your adults can "swim"—the leader's problem is to provide places for the practise of their skill.[35]

Thus does a college professor of geography who has conducted many field trips warn those who would use this particular teaching device. In brief, then, the trip, however short, should be (1) planned carefully in advance, (2) directed toward aims that are known both to leader and to learner, (3) conducted over ground that is familiar to the leader, and (4) organized to provide adequately for the physical needs of the members of the group.[36]

[35] Based upon suggestions in "The Organization of Field Excursions," by Armin K. Lobeck. *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School.* Thirteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1934. p. 274-77.

[36] For further suggestions on trips and excursions consult: Borgeson, F. C. "Trips and Excursions," Chapter 2 in *Elementary School Life Activities.* Vol. I, Group-Interest Activities. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931. p. 4-25.

Maintaining a Reasonable Balance

So far the emphasis in the chapter has been upon the value of direct and concrete experiences. The point has been made that the environment in which the school exists is a treasure house of real examples of things studied about in the classroom. The suggestion has been made that students who actually observe or participate in these social processes in their natural setting will receive an enrichment in educational experiences not available in any other way. This viewpoint has psychological support in the discussion in Chapter III on the nature of the learner.

At the same time, as pointed out in Chapter III, there is reason for believing that all worthwhile learning does not require direct experience in order to be useful for instructional purposes. If this were not true, there would be little value for the school curriculum to consider the Netherlands, Sweden, and other countries because the pupils could not be actually transported to those countries. Nor would there be much value in books excepting as occasional reference material. Social studies would then become a series of projects in which trips, excursions, and even long journeys would dominate the program. Carried to that extreme, direct experiencing must be recognized as a process costly in time and money and not necessarily as efficient in practise as it apparently is in theory.

The statement seems to be warranted, then, that the "direct experience procedure" which is particularly useful in the utilization of community resources is but *one* of many procedures that the efficient teacher will use. In laying plans for the best utilization of the learner's time during a given period, the teacher will have to decide which content and method offer the best possibilities.[87] If opportunity exists for substituting direct community contacts for a brief textbook treatment, the wise teacher will choose the former because it offers greater possibility of developing permanent interests and of opening a wide vista of meanings. For the teacher to fail to make these direct contacts would be as inexcusable as Mr. Gradgrind's smug preference for a dictionary definition of a horse.

If the purpose of the social studies is to help boys and girls to understand and interpret the social life of which they are a part, and to participate in that life with satisfaction to themselves and to society, then it seems obvious that all of the environment, all of the community factors, all of the community problems are inescapably a part of the social studies curriculum.

[87] The whole question of method in the social studies is discussed in greater detail in Chapter XII of this yearbook.

PART THREE

TEACHING, EVALUATING, AND REVISING SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS

CHAPTER XII

THE TEACHER AND CLASSROOM TECHNICS

IT HAS BECOME ALMOST COMMONPLACE to say that the teacher of today occupies a strategic position. As a student of our contemporary culture, and as a public servant in charge of education, he can do much toward the improvement of American society and giving effect to the ideals set forth by American leadership. The purpose of this chapter is to emphasize this important role of the teacher in the social studies program, and to discuss some general principles and underlying classroom technics. Some of the topics which will be considered are: (1) the importance of the teacher in the social studies program; (2) the preparation of the social studies teacher; (3) equipment and materials of instruction; and (4) general principles which apply to the teaching of social studies.

The Importance of the Teacher

The increasingly important position which the teacher holds has been brought about thru a changed concept of the function of the school. For years the school was regarded as a place where the attitudes and beliefs of past generations were passed on, where memoriter learning was the important method used, and where the status quo was carefully maintained. In such an institution little or no premium was placed on individual thinking, and criticism raised by a student concerning the present social and economic order was frowned upon. The student went to school primarily to memorize and not to question. In such a scheme, the job of the teacher was comparatively simple. His chief task was the imparting of isolated facts, carefully taught in logical order from approved texts. Our concept of the school of today is quite different. It has become a place where pupils go, not merely to learn facts, but to carry on a mode of life.

Social sense and civic-mindedness are products of cooperative endeavor, and desirable citizenship qualities develop from working and playing together. To be able to get along satisfactorily with others is an accomplishment much to be desired. To know one's own rights and obligations and to possess a real respect for the rights of others are fundamental to good citizenship.

The slogan of our social studies curriculums might well be: Preparation for citizenship thru participation in a cooperative fashion in worthwhile activities. Membership in a properly guided (but not dominated) club, team, special group, or organization having a worthy purpose is just as vital and important to a child as is the membership of an adult in some larger organization. In fact, the group associations of childhood may be of

greater importance because they contribute more to growth and the development of character. The Junior Red Cross, the School Republics, the safety patrol groups, the Camp Fire Girls, the Girl Scouts, the Girl Reserves, and the Boy Scouts are closely allied with the schools and have for a long time received encouragement and assistance from educators.[1] Many school classes are conducted by self-government principles. The rules, codes, charters, constitutions, and bylaws agreed to and frequently formulated by the students themselves for the purpose of regulating and controlling individual conduct and group procedure pave the way in a concrete and real fashion for an appreciation of the laws and constitutions of our state and national governments and other political subdivisions. Respect for law is also encouraged by the obvious necessity of observing the "rules of the game" in athletics and other contests.

In the elementary grades, thru dramatizations particularly, pupils develop a love of country and other patriotic emotions and feelings of appreciation. These episodes often depict the hardships and sacrifices of men and women who as explorers, pioneers, soldiers, statesmen, scientists, housewives, and mothers have contributed to our nation's development. Locally prepared elementary social studies curriculums continue to be acceptable to the teachers who use them because they offer an ideal way for providing more vital material in a natural setting instead of the compartmentalized knowledge which was presented in a rigid, artificial, and somewhat futile manner only a few years ago. The library-laboratory-research type of classroom procedure not only leads to the mastery of informational knowledge with a stronger likelihood that the facts will be retained by the learner; it serves another worthy purpose, that of stirring desirable emotions. We have long advocated a "3-H" program, the development of head, hand, and heart, but only in recent years has much attention been given to finding an effective method for "educating the heart." It is now agreed that giving mere lip service to didactic statements on proper conduct is ineffective and almost futile. Desirable attitudes and ideals which should serve as controlling factors at critical times in an individual's life must be the outgrowth of experience. Participation in worthwhile activities somewhat comparable to present and future life situations helps materially to condition and strengthen the emotional qualities that are desirable attributes of a well-balanced personality. This new emphasis in learning means that the role of the teacher is no longer that of a purveyor of predetermined, isolated facts, but of a guide to pupils in exploring and in experiencing life activities. A far more difficult task confronts the modern teacher than confronted his predecessors. Today he must teach pupils to think for themselves, to

[1] Information about these groups has been summarized in *Organizations for Youth* by Elizabeth R. Pendry and Hugh Hartshorne; published by McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935. 359 p.

adjust themselves to a rapidly changing world, and to use wisely the leisure of our machine age. The learning process thus becomes an active, aggressive performance, rather than a merely receptive one, education a form of present living, and the school a laboratory in which this living is to take place. It is a staggering task which faces the teacher of today, but it brings a real challenge. No other type of instruction in our public schools today requires higher scholarship, more extensive preparation, greater fortitude, and broader vision than social science teaching.[2]

Preparation Which the Teacher of the Social Studies Needs

If we accept the idea that teaching is not a narrow technic, but rather a leadership into an increasingly meaningful world, the preparation of the teacher must be changed accordingly. It is important that the methods employed by the teacher be psychologically applicable to the maturation level of the pupils and reflective of the technics of scholarly investigation.[3]

Next to a love and understanding of children, the first requisite for the teacher of social studies is a rich content background. There is no substitute for a wide and deep knowledge of the subject which the teacher is to present. The teacher must be acquainted with social conditions and trends in the past which have made history, and must have an acquaintance with source materials in the various phases of social studies. He must know how to use libraries and other institutional and governmental facilities in adding to his own informational background.

It is generally agreed that the content background of presentday social studies teachers should conform to certain minimal requirements whether they teach in elementary, junior high, or senior high schools. Perhaps the advanced courses of the senior high schools demand greater and broader knowledge as reflected by graduate degree requirements. However, others hold that since the social studies are a major part of the curriculum in the elementary school, the preparation of the elementary-school teacher in the social studies field should be as extensive as that of the high-school teacher.

The training of the social studies teacher must include, of course, the generally recognized courses in methods and principles of teaching. But in addition to these courses, or as major elements of them, special attention should be given to the nature of the learner and the learning situation at the various grade levels. Opportunity should be given for the study of the proper use of newspapers, magazines, bibliographies, graphs, cartoons, and the many other types of supplementary materials which are essential in a modern social studies program. Practise in curriculum construction is essen-

[2] Consult also: American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 103-104.

[3] The nature of the learner and the learning process is discussed in Chapter III of this yearbook.

tial because of the necessity of keeping the instruction abreast of rapidly changing events. Observation and practise teaching should be required in the department in which the teacher expects to work, and experience on other levels also would be advantageous. Minimal requirements in the subjectmatter of the social studies for all teachers, according to recent investigation, should include a survey of the development of civilization; history of the United States with special emphasis on social, political, and economic aspects; courses in geography, economics, sociology, and political science, with major sequences to be determined by the school department in which the candidate contemplates teaching.[4]

At the present time there seems to be agreement that the following professional elements are essential in the new program of teacher preparation:

(1) A course which will aim to show the development of educational institutions and their present status in relation to the national culture of England, France, Germany, Russia, and the United States, and to provide a background for the study of major issues of national policy in education.

(2) A course dealing with instinct and learning, individual differences in intellect and character, mental health and problems of behavior, and the major facts of individual growth.

(3) A course covering the principles and major technics of measurement and experimentation in education, together with the necessary statistical training for critical judgment of reports and proposals concerning testing programs and experimental studies in schools. The course deals briefly with the measurement of achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and personality, and with the nature and construction of standard tests and scales.

(4) A course bringing the student face to face with the major issues of the institution in which he is going to work.

These four elements would constitute a minimum of general educational theory. For the purpose of developing skill and understanding, before the student leaves the teacher-training institution he should have a course in principles of teaching, with practise teaching in the neighboring public or private schools. The student should also work with a professor in the school of education who has special knowledge of the problems of teaching and the course of study in the student's chosen subject. In this work, which might be partly tutorial, so-called "special methods" are not the major element. It should cover fundamental issues in the reorganization of materials of instruction. It should involve also practical activities such as the study of the problems of curriculum in the chosen subject; supervisory work; the study of individual difficulties and individual procedures in learning; and problems of testing and the classification of pupils. If the student does not have some contact with these problems as they actually appear in schools, his apprenticeship in school work is incomplete.

[4] Hill, Howard C. "Social Studies and Professional Preparation." *Historical Outlook* 23: 214-17; May, 1932.

Second, the teacher of social studies must have an awareness of the rapidity with which social changes are taking place, and an understanding of some of the vital social problems. Only as the past helps the pupil to interpret the present is history useful. Only as geography helps the pupil to understand how man can alter his environment, and how man and his activity are conditioned by his environment, is it helpful to the individual. Thus some knowledge of presentday social problems and some awareness of how people are endeavoring to solve these problems are essential to good teaching. For this reason the teacher's acquaintance with discussions in current periodicals and recent studies must be a very wide and direct experience.

Third, the teacher should not be a recluse but rather a student of civic and social affairs. It is not necessary, or even wise in some communities, that he be militant in the advocacy of issues. Yet participation in movements for the common good and active interest in the principles of good government should enrich his own experience and also disarm the critics who so frequently accuse the teacher of being theoretical and impractical.

Fourth, the teacher, particularly the teacher of the social studies, must have an understanding of best methods or technics, based on a study of psychology. The word technic, as here used, means "the procedure of a teacher in utilizing devices—his way of combining and emphasizing the elements of the classroom situation." Device is taken to mean "a physical or mental aid to teaching, such as books, questions, problems, or maps."

That there is little uniformity with regard to the technics used in the social studies is shown by the replies to several questions included as a part of the survey previously reported in Chapter V. Principals of representative schools were asked to list the technics or methods "most widely used" and to indicate those "developed to a point of unusual effectiveness." Several interesting points may be summarized from the tabulations of the replies to these questions:

(1) Principals of all types of schools—from six-year elementary to senior high schools—reported the "textbook-recitation" as the most widely used procedure.

(2) In junior high schools, and in eight-year and six-year elementary schools, the most widely used technics in order of frequency of mention were textbook-recitation, project, and problem. Of the technics developed to "unusual effectiveness" the problem or the project technics were mentioned most frequently.

(3) In junior-senior high schools and in three- and four-year high schools the technics most widely used were textbook-recitation, problem, and library-research. The problem method was believed to be the one developed to the point of unusual effectiveness.

(4) On the basis of frequency of mention the "workbook" plan is most useful in elementary schools. The "community-laboratory" technic was mentioned in significant amounts only by the principals of junior and senior high schools.

(5) The present tabulation brought out no significant differences between schools in cities of the various population groups. No real differences appeared in the practises of six-year elementary schools and eight-year schools on the one hand, and of eight-year elementary schools and junior high schools on the other.

There is a lack of uniformity in methods even among so-called good teachers. Barr, in comparing the work of good and poor teachers of social studies, found that altho there are qualitative differences between good teachers and poor teachers these differences are not critically significant within usual limitations. He interprets a critical factor to be one which is so important that no teacher may succeed without it. However, he found that the differences in the teaching performance of good and poor teachers are probably contributing and not critical factors in teaching success, but are none the less important.[5]

In spite of the fact that the teacher must have a thoro understanding of progressive teaching technics based on sound psychology, this mastery of technics must be closely allied with knowledge and purpose. The so-called "trained" teacher, whose chief asset is a pattern for presenting lessons and who has little concern for the thinking processes of the class members, is not a desirable teacher of social studies. An overemphasis on methods *per se* has been the outstanding sin of teacher "training" institutions, just as an overemphasis on content *per se* has been the outstanding sin of liberal arts colleges.

If the schools are to equip the pupils for proper participation in a changing social order, as most students of public affairs insist, and if the teacher's equipment is that described above, then he truly becomes the crux of the program, and wields a wide influence. Especially will this influence be important in classroom, intramural, and playground activities as well as in curriculum content. School experience conditions subsequent life experience. It is the problem of the teacher to facilitate the transition of the pupil from membership in his school group to citizenship in his community, state, and nation.[6]

Equipment and Materials of Instruction

Any method of teaching which aims to develop thinking on the part of boys and girls cannot be dependent upon a single text as its only material of instruction, nor can it follow a page-by-page plan of assigning lessons. Such a method encourages only a memorization of facts for recitation or test purposes. Where once a single textbook served as the sole source, and the use of it the only activity, today many sources and many activities are used in the average classroom procedure. Many sources of information in-

[5] Barr, Arvil S. *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies.* Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1929. p. 121.

[6] See: Dewey, John. "Can Education Share in Social Reconstruction?" *Social Frontier* 1: 11-12; October, 1934.

cluding a variety of textbooks, reference books, source materials, and current periodicals must be used. Textbooks alone are not efficient instruments for the understanding of social problems in a rapidly changing world. Few textbooks prepare a pupil to read with understanding the morning newspapers or the weekly and monthly news magazines. Nor do they necessarily cause him to question as to reliability and impartial point of view the information which he gets. This critical attitude can come only from the comparison of various authors and their writings. It follows then that an adequate school library, with more money for books and magazines than has been spent in the past, is essential for the new kind of social studies work. It should be recognized, however, that teachers often do not take advantage even of a meager supply of textbooks and material at hand. They appear, as it were, to yearn for the pot of gold far away when acres of diamonds are close by.

Meagerness of equipment should not justify a teacher's surrender to conditions. A few postage stamps can be used in procuring material and equipment that will serve to place social studies teaching on a level far superior to the question-and-answer textbook type of procedure heretofore employed. Of course the most desirable situation is that of having a social studies laboratory adjoining the social studies classroom but it need not be considered absolutely necessary to good work or fruitful accomplishment. Near every school there live older inhabitants who can recount the events and history of the district. Stores, factories, hospitals, and other agencies may be useful exhibits. In fact the whole community may well be thought of as a social studies laboratory.[7] If an extra room is not available for a social studies laboratory frequently it is possible for the principal to assign a larger classroom to the social studies teacher who can profitably combine the class activities and the laboratory activities in the same place. Room space, equipment, and supplies are all of importance, but it is of supreme importance that the teacher be certain that he is utilizing all of the valuable material and community activities that are available at no cost whatever in every locality. Limited space in this book will not allow room for checklists, equipment, tables, and outlines of minimum supplies. However, Baldwin in his study of equipment and teaching aids for the social studies has prepared a treatment of the whole problem, with a bibliography.[8]

After all is recorded we must remember that the most important tools in the field of social studies are good, accurate, and authoritative books and of these books the textbook is of paramount importance. The nature of the ideal textbook varies. If there is a plentiful supply of collateral material

[7] For further details see Chapter XI, "The Utilization of Community Resources."

[8] Baldwin, James Willis. *The Social Studies Laboratory; A Study of Equipment and Teaching Aids for the Social Studies.* Contributions to Education, No. 371. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 98 p.

the textbook can be largely a well-prepared series of outlines, but if there is a paucity in the supply of resource material it is necessary that the textbook be much more comprehensive. As much provision as possible should be made for extensive reading materials in order that the social studies student may get maximum satisfaction from investigation of his own initiative and in order that he may develop habits of inquiry and research.

If the pupil is to have access to a wide variety of materials and the writings of a number of authors, he will be forced to meet the problem of comparing conflicting authorities and deciding just what he can believe. The fact that certain groups have considered it disloyal and unpatriotic to speak of the mistakes and shortcomings of one's country and have brought pressure to bear on authors and publishers may be brought out as one reason for omissions and half-true statements in our texts. It must also be brought out that many readers have not wanted unpleasant truths. Governments, like individuals, are unable to exhibit perfect records. It should not be considered unpatriotic to examine our shortcomings in a calm and judicial fashion, for example, to discuss our attitude preceding the Mexican War. Another fact which students should face is that all writers are not equally well qualified. Pupils should be led to investigate the qualifications and probable reliability of conflicting writers, to examine the copyright date, and, what is equally important, to develop the habit of turning to source materials for the final word. Only as pupils develop this critical, open-minded attitude before making deductions, can we be sure that the schools are helping students to protect themselves from propaganda.

Definite training in efficient methods of locating reference material is another essential part of the social studies work. The technical skills thus developed are those which will be used for a lifetime, not just during school years. Knowledge of and skill in using the various parts of a book are phases of this training. Very early the pupil can be taught to use the index, table of contents, and list of illustrations and maps. Later the use of such helps as chapter, topical, and paragraph headings should receive some definite drill. Attention must be given to marginal notes, headings, and footnotes. Reading maps, graphs, charts, and tables, which are becoming increasingly important in contemporary writings, must also be subjects of drill. Exercises in outlining and writing summarizing paragraphs are important. It is frequently advisable to have the same book in the hands of each pupil for lessons in which these technics are being developed and drilled upon.

The research work which has been suggested makes necessary the careful development of certain reading skills. Without a high degree of comprehensive ability research work is futile. Skill in skimming by means of chapter, topic, marginal, and paragraph headings and by means of topic sentences in paragraphs is essential in research work. A knowledge of and

ability to use such sources of material as *The Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, World Almanac, Readers' Guide,* dictionary, atlas, and encyclopedia must be developed, for the technics required in their use are quite different from those required in using ordinary reading material. Even the reading of the daily newspaper requires a technic all its own.

If this laboratory-library-research type of procedure is to be followed, adequate school libraries with many reference books are essential. In the past, taxpayers have been loath to spend any adequate amount on this "tool" of instruction. Some source materials must be a part of such a library, in order to get first-hand information. Magazines and periodicals of every kind must be available for current opinions and current questions. Regional and historical novels which are accurate in background are essential. Studies of social problems such as *Recent Social Trends,* Veblen's *Theory of the Leisure Class,* and Mumford's *Technics and Civilization* will help greatly in widening the teacher's horizon.[9]

The much-discussed movie is, and can become to a much greater extent, a valuable part of the school equipment. Stereographs, pictures well chosen and accurate—both must make their contribution. Ready reference material for debates and panel discussions usually is available especially for the alert teacher. Elections, election returns, campaign speeches, and party platforms are valuable material for appraisal purposes in social studies classes. All of these and more, the alert and broad-visioned social studies instructor will be able to utilize in the classroom.

General Principles Which Apply to the Teaching of Social Studies

In spite of the fact that no general technic can be applied to the teaching of social studies, there are certain fundamental principles which should guide the teacher in his work. The following is a discussion of some of these fundamental principles.

Concern for the individual—In spite of the fact that all education is aimed toward the social good, it is still true that the extent to which each cooperating individual is able to increase his own powers, skills, and understandings, and to live richly is the endpoint toward which all educators are working. One means of bringing about a maximum of individual development is to make provision for individual differences. There is reason for believing that few teachers, even good ones, seem to understand the whole idea of individual differences well enough to provide any plan. However, aside from ability grouping, teachers can to a certain extent take care of these differences in ability by providing research material at

[9] See: President's Research Committee on Social Trends. *Recent Social Trends in the United States.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. 2v., 1568 p. ¶ Veblen, Thorstein B. *Theory of the Leisure Class.* Toronto: Macmillan Co., 1934. 404 p. ¶ Mumford, Lewis. *Technics and Civilization.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1934. 495 p.

various levels, and by allowing each pupil to work on that part of the project or problem which is suited to his stage of development. Caring for individual differences means not only differences in ability but also differences in experiences and interests. Each pupil's background and his peculiar interests should be allowed to contribute to the total learning situation in the most effective way, in order that the pupil's school life may be a continuation of his life outside of school.

Social studies embody an unusual opportunity for the development of character traits, and in so doing can further demonstrate the principle of concern for the individual. In the 1932 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence the objective of character education is defined as "the discovery or creation of a way of living which conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible." [10] Insofar as social studies are concerned with understanding and making of social adjustments, they can include much that is real character education and offer rich opportunities in social living. The individual pupil's needs and abilities determine his part in this phase of social studies.

Social studies may also meet individual needs by setting the school environment so that individuals have an opportunity to participate in social living in the school according to their interests and abilities. Experiences of pupils in governing themselves in school and out, in planning, executing, and judging activities for the benefit of the school, all offer this opportunity.

Appeal to interests or felt needs—By this second principle, doctrine of interest, one means not mere entertainment or enjoyment but rather the creating of such a situation that the pupil acts because of a felt need or purpose. Its value comes from the fact that learning becomes more effective and the interest continues after the unit is completed. Immediate ends are emphasized for the purpose of arriving at more remote ends. An illustration is that of a sixth grade in the training school of the Milwaukee State Teachers College which operated a school savings bank. This bank was organized as closely as possible in accordance with the demands of the Wisconsin banking laws. The pupils' immediate interest in operating a bank grew out of the fact that it was traditional for this grade to do it, and they asked to continue it. Bank stocks were sold at a par value of twenty-five cents per share. There were long discussions of how to invest the capital stock. The bank was also a savings bank and the depositors' money must be invested. Out of this immediate interest in conducting a school bank grew such remote interests as studies of

[10] National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education.* Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 59.

banking laws, stocks and bonds, and the history of banking and of money.[11] It is true that such a situation as this is an artificial one, in the sense that it is a substitute for life outside the school. In other words, we need to emphasize interest in school because we cannot be sure that the incentives which normally spring from larger community life are present and operative.

The teacher need not depend only upon those interests which make themselves evident at any particular time. Countless interests lie dormant, and it is the obligation of the teacher to introduce the pupil to such experiences as will arouse these latent interests. The test of the interest which is present in any activity is the extent to which it is wholeheartedly accepted by the group. This does not mean that the choice of educational ends and objectives is to be left entirely to the pupil. These must be carefully defined and kept clearly in mind by the teacher. The educational objectives can be achieved usually thru many types of experiences, and the experience chosen should be based upon the interests of the pupils and motivation by the teacher.

Frequently, as an outgrowth of interest of students and slight motivation by the teacher, a unit of work follows naturally from a study of another social studies unit. For example, the following complete unit, "The Settlement of the West," was carried on by a junior high-school class in American history:

A group of thirty-four eighth-grade students had been studying the problems of reconstruction following the Civil War and, in reading about the Grant administration, they came upon the story of the building of the Union Pacific Railroad with the aid of government grants. This initiated interest in several things: the people who settled the West, the geography and climate of that section, the problem of building roadways over the Rocky Mountains, and the resources of the West. When the pupils had finished their unit on Reconstruction they began to gather information on these points.

The tables in the classroom were placed in groups of three and in the center of each group there were a number of general history reference books. The pupils spent about four class periods reading. The instructor was on hand to answer questions about choice of reading matter and to help pupils find all the information possible in the books and on charts and maps in the room. Such contacts gave the instructor knowledge of the working habits of each pupil, an appreciation of each pupil's achievements, and helped her to understand the special aptitudes of some and the weaknesses of others.

It was hoped that a majority of the pupils would gain useful knowledge about the development of the West; that each pupil would be more familiar with the map of the United States, would know more about the people who settled the West, would learn about the resources of our western land, and finally, would grow more appreciative of the problems the people in our western states experience.

Following their reading investigations, they spent a period or more making an outline of the material read. Most pupils contributed liberally the information and ideas they had gathered. First, suggestions for main topics were listed on the board, criti-

[11] Patton, Lucille. "When These Young Bankers Grow Up!" *Progressive Education* 10: 256-60; May, 1933.

cized, revised, and rearranged by the pupils. Each topic was then outlined in detail. The instructor kept in the background as much as possible, always allowing the pupils to use their own words, ways of expressing a thought, and choice of subjectmatter arrangement unless these conflicted with truth or accuracy. The teacher also took active part when the material was beyond the grade level or unreasonable in statement.

With the outline completed, pupils spent several days reading again any important part which escaped their attention in the first reading. Also, at this point in the procedure, various groups volunteered to be responsible for oral reports on a definite section of the outline. A chairman at each table was spokesman for his group and redivided his section among his co-workers who, during this period, prepared a detailed report on portions of the outline.

In earlier units of work each pupil presented at the time of his report a graph, map, chart, or some definite object to illustrate the topic he discussed. In this unit the instructor suggested that the pupils might combine their efforts in a group project. Discussion in the group was always free and hearty and, on this occasion, the class decided to construct two large maps illustrating immigration and resources of the United States with special emphasis on the western part. This served as a review of what pupils learned in previous history courses and brought their information up to date.

During the following class periods the time was divided between oral reports given by pupils and working on the map. The reports followed the order of the outline. The class chose a chairman for each map and class members volunteered for service under one or the other chairman. Some pupils secured and brought to the classroom the materials to use. Others drew the outline and put in the essential features of the map. On the one map girls placed two-inch cardboard dolls dressed to represent the immigrants who had come to America. Since these were placed to show where each nationality settled, there were several unfilled spaces in the western states. Finally *coureur-de-bois* were dressed and placed there so that the gay color of their costumes might offset the empty spaces. Sketches of representative American homes were placed around the map to form a border. The second map was filled with sketches, appropriately placed, representing our natural resources.

The pupils spent one class period in asking and answering questions on their oral reports and reading, to review all they had learned. Each wrote a summary of the information gained, using the outline made by the class as a guide. When these papers were finished, the instructor gave a list of twenty completion questions based on the unit. The grades on the test fell very near the natural curve of distribution. There were three very high grades, two were failing grades, eighteen were average grades, and the others were quite evenly divided between the good and low scores.

The pupils had the experience of planning and organizing a unit of work. They gained skill in using and making a map. They had the experience again of completing a task they had set for themselves with pleasure and with a real feeling of success. The girls particularly relived with delight an earlier period of their lives when dolls were their kingdom. These pupils came to know more of the West, its people, and their adaptation to a new environment. In this unit pupils became more critical of their handwork and of their own thinking.[12]

In achieving the objectives pupils should have the benefit of self-direction plus wise guidance. The teacher's job is to help the pupils to choose wisely the tasks which they are to undertake, to lead them to carry

[12] Based upon a unit, "The Settlement of the West," in a course in American history, Burton Junior High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan (Elsie H. Tracy, teacher).

on these tasks with a maximum of satisfaction, and to assist them in judging the results. Setting up objectives does not mean that the teacher will lead the pupils toward a predetermined course with definitely anticipated ends, but rather that he will so set the stage that any one of a number of possible trends may be followed, any one of which would result in growth and added power. If there is too much guidance, the teacher deprives the pupil of his right to grow in self-direction, may destroy the interest without which effective learning cannot take place, and may even arouse a dislike for the experience at hand. On the other hand, if pupils are left too much to themselves, an aimless wandering may result, and habits, attitudes, and learning which are socially and individually harmful may result. It is the right and function of the one providing the guidance to see that individuals contribute according to their interests and abilities, to see that new meanings and understandings are developed, to see that experience is extended to related fields which have a close bearing, and to see that higher and higher standards of workmanship and thoroness are developed. It is not the function of the guide to give to the class detailed plans set in advance, absolute directions, or teacher judgment which takes the place of pupil thinking. The aim of all guidance should be to increase the amount of intelligent self-direction.

This principle of appealing to interests or felt needs means that the work will be purposeful instead of purposeless, and that a real drive which would otherwise be absent will be present. Objectors to such a program say that large gaps in valuable subjectmatter will result. Such is not necessarily the case. If we examine adult life, we find that real life experiences demand that one delve into many related fields to accomplish desired results, and one's past experiences are called upon to help build the new experience. After all, the organization and integration of subjectmatter are dependent upon the individual.

To direct interest and felt need toward the social order and its problems is the task of the social studies teacher. First-hand experiences and contact with many other sources of information help to do this.

Some have the feeling that the appeal to interests or felt needs works well in the lower grades, but that in the upper grades the knowledge which these older pupils should acquire is more complex and requires adult organization. Therefore they resort to tight subjectmatter divisions organized from an adult point of view. Such a change is not warranted by the facts. Pupils at the beginning of their junior high-school career do not undergo a marked change which requires this differentiation. The same psychological principles which apply in the elementary field may be applied here in large measure.

Activity or learning by doing—The third principle is that of learning thru meaningful experiences. Formerly the curriculum was regarded pri-

marily as a body of subjectmatter. Such a point of view has been enlarged; the curriculum is also a set of experiences with subjectmatter. The experiences which pupils have or the activities they perform determine to no small degree their interest in or dislike of the subjectmatter itself. "Activities" are the "things pupils do with aspects of subject content in order to arrive at the educational goals which have been set up as desirable." Activities may be as broad as projects or as narrow as "writing" or "drawing."

A wide variety of activities suitable for use in social studies instruction are available; [13] one "master list of pupil activities" is as follows:

(1) *Visual activities*
- (a) Read to understand: Read to comprehend all of the ideas contained in the material.
- (b) Read to memorize: Intensive reading and rereading of material to fix associations and allow immediate recall when desired.
- (c) Read to locate information: Relatively rapid skimming thru a body of material for the purpose of locating and selecting specific data. Example: Look thru the Constitution to find all the clauses that refer to the courts.
- (d) Read for enjoyment: Extensive rather than intensive reading which appeals to the pupil's emotions as well as to the intellect. Example: Reading historical novels and poems.
- (e) Study maps to understand all the ideas they contain.
- (f) Consult maps to locate specific information.
- (g) Study charts and diagrams to understand all the ideas they contain.
- (h) Consult charts and diagrams to locate specific items of information.
- (i) Study graphs and statistical tables to understand their full significance.
- (j) Consult graphs and statistical tables to locate specific items of information.
- (k) Observe pictures, scenes, models, relics, exhibits, bulletin boards, etc., for general impression and emotional enjoyment.
- (l) Observe pictures, scenes, models, relics, exhibits, bulletin boards, etc., to locate specific items of information.
- (m) Observe pictures, scenes, models, relics, exhibits, bulletin boards, etc., for specific details and emotional enjoyment.

(2) *Listening activities*
- (a) Listen attentively to oral presentation of materials in classroom: Class discussion, declamation, or dramatization.
- (b) Listen to music in classroom: Listen to phonograph records or group singing.
- (c) Listen to radio programs: Listen to radio music, addresses, dramatizations, current events, etc. An activity impersonal in character, and which may involve a somewhat different psychological situation. It may be carried on at home or in school.
- (d) Listen to illustrated lectures: An activity involving both auditory and visual attention. There is some evidence that this combined activity requires a special study skill.
- (e) Listen to sound motion pictures: Both auditory and visual powers are involved and the combination may require a special study skill.

[13] See: Wilson, Howard E. " 'Things to Do' in the Social Science Classroom; An Analysis of Methods." *Historical Outlook* 20: 218-34; May, 1929. ¶Stephenson, Orlando W. "Bringing Aims and Activities Together in the Teaching of the Social Studies." *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* 5: 97-100; October, 1930.

(3) *Oral activities*
- (a) Read aloud. A combination of visual and oral activity.
- (b) Engage in group discussion: The activity is the reverse of listening to class discussion and involves participating in the discussion.
- (c) Give a special report or "floor talk." The pupil presents to the class a report of a topic which he has previously prepared.
- (d) Participate in a mock trial, a pantomime, or drama.
- (e) Engage in a debate: Formal argument and rebuttal between two or more students in connection with a controversial topic.
- (f) Give a memorized declamation.
- (g) Recite in class.

(4) *Writing activities*
- (a) Write a descriptive theme: (A theme is here defined as "continuous written discourse.") It involves the collection, classification, and adequate presentation of descriptive material in writing.
- (b) Write a narrative theme: An item of written discourse narrating a story or incident. It involves collection, classification, and adequate presentation of narrative materials in writing.
- (c) Write an expository theme: An item of written discourse explaining a trend, a point of view, a cause-effect relationship, etc. Examples are book reviews and editorials. It involves collection, classification, and adequate presentation of expository materials in writing.
- (d) Write poetry.
- (e) Write a play or pageant.
- (f) Write an advertisement or slogan or newspaper headline.
- (g) Make a summary or précis: A summarization or "boiling down" of material.
- (h) Make an outline or brief: A brief is an argument for or against a given point of view. An outline is a topical summarization of materials properly classified. Distinguishing between main headings and subheadings is necessary.
- (i) Write a question, as for a "question box" or examination.
- (j) Write a letter.
- (k) Make a list of items: The pupil may be asked to prepare a list of the books he has read, a list of the words in a lesson which are new to him, important personages, or the functions of the Supreme Court.

(5) *Drawing activities*
- (a) Draw a true picture: Represent actual objects as accurately as possible. Example: Draw a picture of a medieval castle.
- (b) Draw a symbolic picture: Express events, objects, or ideas in symbolic form. Example: Draw a cartoon showing the results of the Civil War.
- (c) Draw a diagram or chart.
- (d) Draw a graph or statistical table: In addition to tabular presentation of data, statistical material may be presented in line graphs, bar graphs, circle graphs, and picture graphs.
- (e) Draw a map.
- (f) Draw a plan, design, or pattern.

(6) *General activities*
- (a) Collect materials such as stamps, clippings, and old coins.
- (b) Prepare exhibits: A combination of many types of activity in a single project, usually on a cooperative basis. Materials collected by an individual or group may be displayed on a classroom bulletin board or in a special exhibit.

(c) Construct models, stage properties, etc.
(d) Take part in committee work: Participation in small-group work either in the classroom or in extracurriculum activities.
(e) Take part in school or community projects: Such activities as participating in community celebrations, safety campaigns, school elections, undertaking work in school clubs, sharing in community celebrations.
(f) Participate in the work of social science clubs, an extracurriculum activity.
(g) Preside at a meeting of a class or club.
(h) Take a field trip: An actual visit to a civic institution, historical locality, etc.
(i) Make a survey: An inventory is made by the pupil as the result of investigating such problems as city planning, city housing, or school attendance.
(j) Take a new-type examination.[14]

Which of the above activities are liked by pupils at particular grade levels is not yet known, but some light on the problem has been shed by the investigation from which this list has been taken. Which of the activities are particularly effective in making pupils learn is not known, altho some investigations point to the effectiveness of (1) extensive reading, (2) comparing, (3) outlining, (4) summarizing, and (5) engaging in discussion. The master list of activities, however, is chiefly useful as a beginning in the study of pupil activities.

For pupils to have genuine experiences in socio-economic fields is difficult but not impossible. Pupils may visit a fire department or a market; they may inspect the water works plant; and they may learn about the post office and kinds of stamps in order really to sell stamps at school. Many activities are possible as has been shown in Chapter XI. In the country the town meetings, the farm bureau, grange, and other farmers' meetings provide a large amount of rich material and valuable experience which the teacher and pupils can use to great advantage in social studies activities. In the city the pupil can do little about freedom of the press or election of officials but there is an opportunity to study poor housing conditions, insanitary markets, and the effectiveness of health and traffic safeguards. These and other city and rural activities furnish valuable material for the social studies laboratory.

The value of observational experiences should not be overlooked. Attending meetings and listening to discussions are sure to arouse interest and stimulate thought. The chief opportunity, however, which the pupil has for participating in social experiences is within the school itself. Such an activity as the following is rich in social problems. In one school it was desirable that a small concrete pool be built in which kindergarten pupils could sail their boats. The pupils considered the desirability of the project

[14] See: Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, A. C. *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part IV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 64-67.

and the job was joyously accepted by a seventh-grade group. Not only did they need to find out about methods of working with concrete and obtain expert help in doing it, but they must also plan the size and shape, decide on a location, consider the science features involved, consult supply houses for prices, estimate the cost, do the purchasing, and finally organize their group for the actual work. Related fields came in, such as studying the source of building supplies and selling problems. Such opportunities for experiencing do not present themselves frequently, but the skilful classroom teacher must use such actual situations whenever possible.

The project method is one name given to the method of learning thru experiencing and emphasizes purposeful activities carried on in a lifelike situation. This movement had many followers and many who misunderstood it. Nevertheless, it has centered the attention of educators on the value of lifelike activities.[15]

Since activities are so vital a part of any social studies program, the following standards for evaluating activities are presented:

(1) What indication is there in each of these items that the activity is of such a nature that the pupils will receive maximum profit from it?
   (a) Is it suited to the stage of development that this group has now reached?
      Have they had the experience necessary to a satisfactory completion of the work?
      Are they too advanced either in terms of achievement or in terms of interest for the work?
      Are the materials used unsuitable to their stage of development either in terms of control over them or in terms of quality of final product?
      Are the materials and methods to be used suitable from the standpoint of possibilities of acquiring new or better technics?
   (b) Does the activity provide for self-expression?
      Are the materials available such that each child can express his own ideas and individuality in carrying out this activity?
      Are the methods, materials, and plans such that the pupils can proceed without dictation by a teacher altho he may be called upon for help and advice?
      Are the materials, methods, and proposed results such that they have meaning and significance for all those that are to work upon the activity (altho not necessarily for the entire class)?
      Will the activity provide an opportunity for creative work either in discovering some new way of doing a thing; discovering an interesting way of organizing material; developing ways for themselves in expressing ideas, convictions, or feelings; or developing by themselves or with others a finished product conceived and produced as their own?
   (c) Does the activity provide an opportunity and incentive for the pupils to acquire added facility, by the use of natural situations, of the fundamental skills in reading, writing, oral and written expression, spelling, etc.?

[15] See: Kilpatrick, William H. *Foundations of Method.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. 383 p. ¶ Kilpatrick, William H. "The Project Method." *Teachers College Record* 19: 319-35; September, 1918. ¶ Branom, Mendel E. *The Project Method in Education.* Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919.

(d) Does the activity provide an opportunity and incentive for building up progressively better habits of study and work in organizing, planning, and carrying out plans?

(e) Does the activity give opportunities and incentive for using a variety of study technics?

(f) Is the activity of such a nature that it will furnish a means for the teacher to learn where he needs to apply teaching? In other words will it furnish an opportunity for the teacher to observe the pupils in action so that he may judge where they need help and where they need to be let alone to work things out for themselves?

(g) Is the activity of such a nature that it will help pupils to learn to work together harmoniously, effectively, and economically?

(2) What indication is there in these activities that they are of such a nature that they will prove of interest to the pupils?

(a) Does the activity call into play one or more of the following natural tendencies:

The tendency to play?

The tendency to construct?

The tendency to express oneself in language, art, bodily expression, and music?

The tendency to collect and own?

The tendency toward display of one's attainments?

The tendency toward physical or mental activity?

The tendency to investigate and inquire?

(b) Will the activity give satisfaction because it is fitted to the capacities and abilities of the group?

Will it challenge their efforts?

Is it accomplishable?

(c) Are the means of carrying on this activity and the end sought identified with the personalities of these children?

Did the idea originate with them? If not, did they make it their own by some modification or rearrangement of plans?

Did they plan how their ideas were to be carried out?

Have they some real reason why they wish to carry on this activity? In other words does it fill a real need in the class program of work? Or is it merely ornamental or decorative?

When the activity is completed will the production be of some practical use either to the individual or to the class?

Can the workers proceed without undue interference or help by the teacher?

Are the materials to be used for carrying out this activity those over which the children can exercise some control and those with which the pupils enjoy working?

(3) Are the suggested activities within the limits of time and materials available?

Is there time to do the work well?

Will the time taken for this work rob pupils of time needed for other things, considered more important?

What materials are needed for the work?

Are these available without unduly taxing the resources of the pupil or group? [16]

[16] From an unfinished and unpublished manuscript, *The Social Studies Curriculum*, by Herbert B. Bruner and C. Mabel Smith.

Development of habits of thinking—A fourth major principle to be considered in social studies teaching is the development of habits of thinking. Habits of thinking, like other habits, are developed thru practise, and it is the function of the school to provide such problematic situations as will call forth the active response of the pupils. The steps in thinking as outlined by Dewey are: (1) origin in some perplexity, confusion, or doubt; (2) a tentative plan based on analogous past experience and prior knowledge; and (3) careful examination and criticism of the plan. The last step involves the maintenance of a state of doubt and the carrying on of systematic and protracted inquiry.[17]

From this description of the thinking process it is quite evident that many problem-solving situations must and do confront the pupil daily. Information acquired in the solution of problems becomes more meaningful and is more likely to remain a part of the pupil's equipment and to influence future action. Both large and small problems come into the life of the average adult, and in the same way the pupil should be confronted with some matters which require only a moment's thought and other larger questions which require much study in order that he may become skilful in making correct generalizations.

It is apparent then that thinking is fundamental in the life of both the adult and the youth. In school it is the problem of the teacher to provide many situations which will lead to the development of habits of logically inquiring, concluding, and acting. Subjectmatter, small or large in amount, which lends itself to these three phases of mental activity may be properly classified as a satisfactory unit of curriculum content. The last phase, acting, need not always be some form of visible physical movement. Investigation and conclusion may often naturally cause one to become inwardly convulsed as is the case when the emotions are stirred.[18]

The problem method, growing out of the recognized need for the pupil to develop habits of clear thinking, emphasizes self-initiated problems, or, rather, problems which the pupil fully accepts as his own and feels a real need for solving. It sees the value of realistic education, and accepts the fact that it will be real only insofar as it is related to the pupil's own purposes.

Our present chaotic social condition indicates the need for training in meeting problems. It is only reasonable to assume that pupils who have constantly been brought up against situations requiring solution, and having partly solved their own problems, will be increasingly intelligent about social problems, and will be better able to deal with them when the difficulties are theirs.

[17] Dewey, John. *How We Think.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1933. p. 12-13.

[18] Kilpatrick, William H. "The Essentials of the Activity Movement." *Progressive Education* 11: 346-59; October, 1934.

A group of boys and girls in one of the later elementary grades had with keen interest started the publication of a simple newspaper for their school. Their discussion had centered around the question of what constitutes desirable news in any newspaper, and to help in answering it the teacher brought to school copies of several nationally known newspapers, some known for their accuracy and care in what they published, and others of a decidedly sensational nature. In the latter, scandal and a probable careless handling of the truth were pointed out by several pupils. One pupil questioned as scandalous an item which had been published in the first edition of their own paper. Others disagreed, and a more careful definition of what really constitutes scandal was worked out. One conclusion reached in this discussion was that many of the papers received by the homes carried news which was not in any way desirable. Then, too, the pupils were better able to decide what news should appear in their own school paper.

The testing of facts and suspension of judgment until adequate data are obtained are essential parts of any adequate solution of a problem. This spirit of inquiry should be developed in pupils. With such a habit formed pupils will have a thoughtful, critical attitude toward their reading material and will examine all available facts before making any deductions.

Another organized plan for developing habits of thinking is the so-called unit plan.[19] In the minds of some educators this is regarded as merely a plan of subdividing the work of a grade into units, and these units have no further significance than the subdivision of a course into sections, parts, topics, or lessons.[20] But to others it includes a method of teaching. The teaching procedure of the unit method may consist of the five steps—exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. Each unit in the social studies has for its core a central understanding of comprehensive scope and significance, termed the "learning objective." All materials and devices used in the unit are to further a real understanding of this objective.[21] These samples of life situations should be constructed so that they will not be too far above pupil level. They must be within the range of his comprehension, not only with regard to the material of the unit but also with regard to its arrangement and the methods involved in classroom procedure.[22]

Frequently a unit may be the outgrowth of some incident occurring in class discussion or an outgrowth of more general school or community activity. Curiosity leads to casual investigation and as greater interest is aroused, well-defined questions are set up, purposing becomes more definite,

[19] Discussion of the method and sample units will be found in Chapter IX and Chapter X.

[20] Evidence of the confusion of terminology in practise is found in *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion* by Roy O. Billett, Monograph No. 13, National Survey of Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education, 1933, p. 227-36.

[21] Morrison, Henry C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School.* rev. ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. 688 p.

[22] Bruner, Herbert B. *The Place of Units in Course of Study Construction.* Bulletin No. 2, 1930. Pierre, S. D.: State Department of Public Instruction.

investigation and research are well under way, and many fields of knowledge are tapped for information pertinent to a solution of the problem.

According to the Lincoln School staff a unit is:

> A series of worthwhile experiences bound together around some central theme of child interest. Some incident serves as a starting point to arouse such an interest; activities of a compelling nature further stimulate this interest; information from almost every branch of knowledge is drawn upon to answer the questions that arise; individual expression of this interest is encouraged thru various media.[23]

According to the above definition, a unit in social studies might be "What Our City Does for Safety and Health" and would include interviews with policemen and firemen, visits to various places where health and safety activities are carried on, the finding of information which has a bearing on the topic, and finally the adoption of a plan for cooperating with these agencies.

Or a unit might be like the first project of the Cooperative Study in Community Civics, namely, "Getting and Spending Government Money." In working on this unit the club plan was used. Each class organized into a club with the usual officers. Committees were appointed as necessity arose for special inquiries and interviews with officials. In many of the classes the interest of the students in the generally considered dry subject of taxation rose to "white heat" as attested by students and parents as well as teachers. The Civics Research Institute which had charge of the Cooperative Study reported that during the spring term of 1934, 105 schools in 36 cities used the unit to excellent advantage in grades ranging from sixth to twelfth. In 90 percent of the cases it was used in the eighth or ninth grade. Most of the schools used from five to seven periods but in some cases where a great deal of supplementary material was related to the project fifteen, twenty, or thirty periods were used. Much information was obtained by 82 schools from officials. Among those most frequently consulted were the mayor, treasurer, assessor, tax collector, city clerk, comptroller, auditor, superintendent of schools, and police and fire department officers. Information was also obtained from relatives and other adults. Textbooks, libraries, newspaper offices, chambers of commerce, and other civic organizations also served for informational purposes. The use of "Getting and Spending Government Money" as a way of dealing with the subject of taxation in the regular civics courses stimulated interest to a much higher degree than when taxation was presented in the traditional fashion. The teachers who participated agreed that the amount of information obtained by the pupils was greater and that their own concepts were considerably strengthened.[24]

[23] Keelor, Katharine L., and Sweet, Mayme A. *Units of Work Developing Out of Children's Interests in Local History; Indian Life and the Dutch Colonial Settlement.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. p. 2.

[24] For further details consult the report of the project "Getting and Spending Government Money," in the Cooperative Study in Community Civics conducted by Civics Research Institute, 3506 Patterson St., Washington, D. C. p. 2.

Controversial issues—The fifth principle naturally follows, namely, the development of thinking boys and girls, brought face to face with problem situations and encouraged to do wise reading, means that controversial issues must be faced. It will be impossible to avoid them. The method which the teacher shall use in dealing with these problems about which we are so uncertain is a very real question. In the past, repression and silence have been the common practise. If this practise did not succeed in stamping out the critical issues as far as the school was concerned, rationalization was tried. But real controversial issues were not faced. Today several ways of dealing with them are suggested. One is the old way of avoiding or repressing them, saying that immature minds should not be bothered, and the status quo should be undisturbed.

A second possible method is that of saying that in time these troublesome current issues will take care of themselves. Still another method is that of distorting and changing the real problem to make it fit our own preferences and feelings. But a fourth plan, which seems to be the most desirable one, is that of squarely facing any controversial issue which comes into the focus of the class, and making it an integral part of the subjectmatter of education. Such questions as free trade, communism, and industrial reform movements deserve this kind of treatment. To do otherwise is to divorce the school from real life. After the class has recognized that there is a problem upon which more than one point of view could be given, there should be a sharing of ideas and a mutual give and take, in which each person, with different interests, feelings, and passions, will make his contribution. All possible sides of the question will be discussed and all possible sources of information will be tapped. In most cases no final conclusion can be reached, but many more of the facts will be known and all sides can be brought into the open.

The questionnaires distributed to principals thru superintendents and summarized in detail in Chapter V included a question designed to estimate the present situation with regard to controversial issues: "Are there any controversial issues which community opinion forces you to avoid completely?"

Table 27 summarizes the general nature of the replies with regard to whether or not schools are required to avoid issues. Percents are computed on the basis of the total number of questionnaires received. It should be noted that over 70 percent of the principals of six-year elementary schools did not answer the question at all. A number of explanations might be cited, such as the general practise of devoting the six-year elementary curriculum to the fundamental habits and skills. It is interesting and probably significant that the percent replying "No" increases in the upper grades and in the high schools. At the senior high-school level over 70 percent of

the principals believe that public opinion does not require an avoidance of controversial topics.

Table 28 lists the topics which were reported on the blanks by principals as issues which had to be avoided or handled with special tact. As shown previously in Table 27, those listing specific issues constitute a relatively small proportion (never more than 15 percent) of the total number of replies. Taking the eleven items mentioned most frequently in Table 28 as examples of the fields of controversy, we find the list includes in order of frequency of mention: (1) local and state politics, (2) religion, (3) labor-capital problems, (4) politics, (5) communism, (6) New Deal, (7) temperance and prohibition, (8) racial problems, (9) public ownership, (10) evolution, and (11) socialism. These items are only suggestive of general

TABLE 27.—REPLIES OF PRINCIPALS TO THE QUESTION: "DOES PUBLIC OPINION REQUIRE YOU TO AVOID CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES?"

Reply	849 replies from six-year elementary schools		342 replies from eight-year elementary schools		234 replies from junior high schools		173 replies from junior-senior high schools		400 replies from three- and four-year high schools	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
No	197	23.2	169	49.5	150	64.2	111	64.2	269	67.2
Handle tactfully	9	1.1	8	2.3	4	1.7	13	7.5	19	4.9
Yes (specific topic listed)	32	3.7	32	9.3	29	12.3	25	14.4	55	13.7
No answer	611	72.0	133	38.9	51	21.8	24	13.9	57	14.2
Total number of questionnaires	849	100.0	342	100.0	234	100.0	173	100.0	400	100.0

areas as there is some obvious overlapping. It would not be correct to assume that entire areas represented by such topics as "labor-capital problems" would be considered taboo by most respondents. A number of principals indicated that they had in mind such specific items as strikes and other problems involving physical and emotional violence.

Principals at the junior high-school level and above were also asked the question: "Are there controversial issues hitherto avoided, which you have been able to teach in the last two or three years?" (It should be kept in mind that the questionnaires were sent out in December 1934.) About one-half of the principals did not feel that any change had taken place in the past two or three years. One-fifth felt that they had either more freedom on controversial issues or greater freedom with all types of problems. The others did not answer the question.

Freedom and fair practise—A sixth and very important principle to observe is that of freedom and fair practise. Freedom in teaching is essen-

TABLE 28.—CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES "AVOIDED" OR "HANDLED TACTFULLY," AS REPORTED BY PRINCIPALS

Issues	1191 elementary schools (six- and eight-grade)		807 junior and senior high schools		
	64 principals report: "Avoid"	25 principals report: "Handle tactfully"	109 principals report: "Avoid"	39 principals report: "Handle tactfully"	Total number of times mentioned
SOCIAL					
Religion	7	4	30	7	48
Communism	2	3	8	3	16
Temperance and prohibition	..	3	10	2	15
Racial problems	1	..	3	6	10
Socialism	..	2	2	4	8
Evolution	..	1	5	2	8
Divorce and marriage	..	2	1	2	5
Sex	..	..	3	..	3
Dancing	2	..	..	..	2
Social inequalities	..	..	1	1	2
Local advertising	..	1	..	..	1
Early history of man	..	1	..	..	1
Individualism	..	1	..	..	1
Pacifism	1	..	..	..	1
Birth control	..	..	1	..	1
Crime and delinquency	..	..	1	..	1
Fascism	..	..	1	..	1
Liberalism	..	..	..	1	1
Propaganda	..	..	1	..	1
Radical social theories	..	..	1	..	1
Charity	..	..	1	..	1
Immigration	..	..	..	1	1
ECONOMIC					
Labor-capital problems	..	..	25	8	33
Chain stores	..	..	1	2	3
Farmer's viewpoint	1	..	..	1	2
Local corporations	..	..	2	..	2
Power question	..	..	1	..	1
Distribution of wealth	..	..	1	..	1
Industrial revolution	..	..	..	1	1
Railroads	..	..	1	..	1
GOVERNMENT					
Local and state politics	34	4	56	13	107
Politics	10	4	8	3	25
New Deal	4	1	8	3	16
Public ownership	2	..	7	..	9
Taxation	..	1	3	..	4
Relief	2	1	..	..	3
Party issues	1	..	2	..	3
National politics	1	1	1	..	3
Anything anti-Constitution	1	..	..	..	1
World peace	..	1	..	..	1
German affairs	..	1	..	..	1
Relations with Russia	..	..	..	1	1
War debts	..	..	..	1	1
Political propaganda	..	..	1	..	1
Government	..	..	..	1	1
Social legislation	..	..	..	1	1
County hospital	..	..	1	..	1
Schoolboard policies	..	..	1	..	1
School administration	..	..	1	..	1
School curriculum	..	..	1	..	1
Teachers' salaries	..	..	1	..	1

tial if the point of view of the preceding discussion of controversial issues is adopted. The freedom which teachers have had in the past is only that which does not interfere with the status quo. Today teachers should have freedom to teach facts as they know they are, even tho they are unpleasant to certain groups. Pupils should have freedom to face social issues as they are if they are to learn to be judicially minded. In order that the teacher may be unhampered in his work it is only imperative that his freedom be not unduly restricted and that his motives be not misinterpreted. In other words, he must be protected by making certain that the pupil and the parent understand the judicial aspect of the teacher's function. It is easy for a student following discussion in class to quote at home or elsewhere something contributed by a class member from a newspaper or some other source as a point of view imposed by the teacher who was not responsible for the statement at all. It is natural for parents who in their school days were accustomed to the lecture method in class work to assume that the teacher is the source of all information. It is necessary then at the beginning of all social studies class work and at frequent intervals to make students and, thru the students, parents conscious of the fact that the teacher is either the chairman of a discussion group or a guide in thinking but not one to impose his personal views.

A recent editorial in the *Washington Post* on "Teaching and Advocacy" gives a lay opinion of what should be the reasonable limitations and latitude of the teacher's responsibility:

TEACHING AND ADVOCACY

Although Congress, when it stipulated that no part of the appropriation for District schools might be used to pay salaries of persons "teaching or advocating" communism, probably regarded the two words as comparable, the fact is that they have no relationship. This, fortunately for Washington, is clear to the majority of the board of education. Fortunately, because the board's opinion serves to guarantee the intellectual integrity and thereby the usefulness of the city's teachers.

Mr. Prettyman, in his advisory opinion, made the distinction clear when he wrote: "To state that communism exists is not to 'teach' it. To state what communists believe is not to 'teach communism' provided that the method or manner of statement does not imply approval." To advocate means to urge or recommend, and no one with any loyalty to American principles would tolerate the urging or recommendation of a political philosophy predicated on class dictatorship. On the other hand, the essence of instruction is impartial and full exposition of facts to the end that thinking may be stimulated in the mind of the student.

Obviously, any attempt to discuss the social sciences without any reference to the gigantic Russian experiment could lead only to incomplete and erroneous conclusions. It is against the law for any one religious creed to be taught in tax-supported schools, yet the history teacher can and does present the relations of church and state during the Middle Ages without suspicion of proselytizing. So should every teacher explore every quarter of his field in any department.

Democracy hinges on mass comprehension of truth, and truth is to be gained only through education which develops instead of discouraging thought. Shackle the teacher and education becomes a farce while its institutions disintegrate, as the sad condition of the once great universities of Italy and Germany will testify. Once schools are fettered, as one great contemporary thinker has put it, "We might as well blow out the light and fight it out in the dark, for when the voice of reason is silenced, the rattle of machine guns begins." [25]

A good method is to have a frank discussion with the pupils regarding the possibility of conveying wrong impressions as to the real source of information emanating from a discussion in a social studies class. Many a time an instructor has been wrongly and unjustly accused of disseminating subversive doctrine among students. Frequently such misinformation is promulgated as the result of a chance remark of a student in class, the remark being repeated by some other student at home, and a parent assuming that it was the dictum of the instructor.

A code of fair practise might well be formulated by students themselves in the interest of fair play, prevention of false statements, and protection to the instructor. In one school a teacher who wished to stimulate the interest of the pupils in preparing a code made certain suggestions at the beginning of the school year. A member of the class recorded the teacher's remarks as follows:

The units we are to study will involve a considerable amount of class discussion. The information used will come from different sources, teachers, parents, friends, and many newspapers and magazines of various political and economic leanings as well as books and general references. In this way students are likely to get twisted statements made in class and either forget who made them or unconsciously convey the impression that the teacher was the source of the information. A little later, some parents having perchance at some neighborhood gathering or elsewhere talked about their children and school happenings, become much agitated over some statement accredited to the teacher. Then they come to the teacher and ask, "Why did you say this?" and "Why did you teach that?" when it was not the teacher at all who had made the remarks. Cannot you students make some suggestions which might help to prevent confusing of statements?

The following suggestions were made by the students:

(1) Receive from time to time the contributions of the members, taking care to recall definitely who did the talking.

(2) Always remember that the teacher serves as a guide and her aim is to stimulate our thinking and not to do our thinking for us.

(3) At the close of a discussion prepare a summary for the secretary's records.

(4) Always be careful in quoting what has been said in order that injustice may be done to no one.

(5) Feel free to say in class anything of which you are reasonably certain and if you are wrong someone will correct you. When you are out of class make statements only for which you have proof.

[25] *Washington Post.* "Teaching and Advocacy." Editorial, October 18, 1935. Washington, D. C.

Since the subjectmatter of social studies courses unavoidably embraces many topics and issues which are considered to be controversial in nature, the position of the social studies teacher is correspondingly more hazardous than that of other teachers. But should any teaching position in a country governed by the spirit of true democracy be allowed to be hazardous if the teacher observes the principles of fair practise, is amenable to commonly accepted custom, and is constantly controlled by the rules which should always operate when and where the student is to be placed in the position of a learner in quest of truth? Obviously this does not give to an instructor unlimited rights. Freedom must be considered a relative matter even in a democracy.

The only freedom which can be generally enjoyed in the schools is the freedom to speak temperately, fairly, and with the utmost respect for the facts in the case. The pursuit of any other kind of freedom is likely to get the pursuer into trouble. So the teacher who asks for academic freedom is under obligation to present his subjects in the classroom with calmness, in appropriate language, in the judicial spirit.

But even despite the setting up of the above safeguards there is still the necessity for general understanding among teachers and parents regarding the true position of the social studies teacher. Perhaps the best solution would be the establishment of certain rules and principles, with every possible effort made to have them universally accepted. Such rules and principles might have the following form:

(1) In history we run across democracy, republicanism, fascism, communism, and other social forms and cannot teach true history without some explanation of them.

(2) It is important that parents and community leaders understand the function of the schools in this regard. It should be remembered that everything said in a classroom is not said by teachers.

(3) It should be generally recognized that teachers have grave responsibilities in presenting controversial matters and are bound to present them as impartially as possible. Teachers and others concerned as an outgrowth of their experience should have conferences and set up some rules regarding procedure.

(4) Teachers have rights as citizens but at the same time they must recognize the necessity of having regard for their school obligations.

(5) If and when accusations and charges are made that a teacher has deviated from accepted practise, a method of investigation previously agreed upon should be employed. This method might be as follows:

(a) Charges should be definitized and presented to the superintendent of schools.

(b) In exact words just what was said by the teacher?

(c) Who are the witnesses against the teacher and what is their evidence?

(d) Before any discussion is countenanced or dispute allowed accusers should be required to state definitely just what the accused did say and to substantiate the accusation with proof that is incontrovertible.

(e) All gossip and rumors should be ruled out and especially should the chatter of irresponsible children be sifted.

(f) After the facts are established there arise immediately the questions: Was the statement made by the teacher either unjudicial or inappropriate? Did the teacher advocate any subversive doctrine or was he merely presenting the different sides of a question? Did he go beyond the boundaries of his constitutional rights? Most important of all should be an attempt to find what was the real intent back of the statements made. Was the statement of the teacher an error in judgment or wilful violation of a spirit of fair play?

It is possible usually to avoid spreading wrong impressions by using proper precaution and by using a technic somewhat similar to that indicated above. However, teachers should not avoid their duty to members of their classes in teaching truth and in making certain that all sides of a question are brought out. There is no more reason why social, political, and economic subjects cannot be discussed in high school and college than that the various religions cannot be discussed in theological seminaries.

However, there is not universal agreement that all "dangerous issues" should be considered under all conditions. Under the press of emergency conditions there was issued a *Manual for Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps* which contained among many helpful suggestions the following admonition:

How to avoid dangerous issues—Discussion can reach a point where it may run into dangerous issues. This is particularly true in foreman training classes and with experienced groups. An instructor is not expected to sit as a judge and give decisions concerning arguments and policies. Should it be indicated that dangerous topics are being brought up for discussion in the class, the instructor should analyze the situation, and if it is considered unwise to deal with any given topic, lead the discussion away from that topic. One safe way is, of course, to stay away from dangerous topics. Recognize them early in the discussion, and switch the subject to something of greater interest to the group if possible.

Another way is to promise to bring the dangerous issue up at some future time. This will make it possible for the instructor to secure additional information before discussing it, and it also sets up the possibility of the topic being forgotten. A story to switch the interests of the class is a clever device for changing the topic. Frankness and honesty will help, and if the case warrants it, the instructor should tell the class that the dangerous issue is not a part of the lesson, and should refuse to discuss it.[26]

The Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum has clearly demonstrated thruout the present yearbook that it does not agree with the above quotation.[27] Nor does the Commission subscribe to the following definition of teaching which is found on page 3 of the same manual:

[26] U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Vocational Division. *A Manual of Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1935. p. 22-23.

[27] The section on controversial issues quoted from the *Manual for Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps* was apparently based upon pages 86-90 of Bulletin 125, *The Training of Foreman Conference Leaders* (Federal Board for Vocational Education, December, 1927). Bulletin 125 was written for use with adult executives and foremen in industrial plants.

Teaching is the process of controlling, directing, or managing the thinking of the student so that he will be able to do and to understand the thing which you plan to teach him.

The implications of the preceding definition of teaching raise the question of indoctrination in education.[28] Some, defining indoctrination as the normal influence which a teacher cannot help but bring to bear on pupils because of his background and preferences, argue that indoctrination is unavoidable. They would argue that the very process of thinking means selection of what we are to think about, and selection also of the questions that we ask concerning it, and since the very environment into which we were born has shaped our attitudes, tastes, and ideas, it is impossible for us to achieve complete impartiality. By its very nature all education is a kind of indoctrination. There are others who would strive to be impartial but who would practise indoctrination in the opposite direction. But still others, agreeing that indoctrination is inescapable, believe that the function of educators is not to promote any doctrine, even tho that doctrine be the "American Dream." [29] They believe that any doctrine is a fixation, sets a final goal, and as such is not in keeping with the development of intelligence, which must be born in doubt, and grow thru inquiry, selection, and testing. To this latter group indoctrination must be in the method of the sciences, in the relativity and contingency of all doctrines, in their dependence on choice, and in the process and pattern of choosing which is called intelligence. In such a plan doctrines or beliefs become materials of choice and as such must be brought to the attention of boys and girls, and indoctrination becomes a method by which validity of doctrines can be tested. Such a point of view seems to be in keeping with the principle of developing habits of thinking.

Large-group-mindedness—A seventh principle to be observed in the teaching of social studies is that there is a great need for developing a more altruistic generation. The "rugged individualism" in the economy of the past seems to be giving way to or, in many respects, is accompanied by an ideal of working for the social good. If schools are to have some part in promoting this ideal, technics used in teaching must be altered accordingly. The need for making social problems and social material a part of the social studies curriculum has already been discussed. But if boys and girls are to function in this social plan, the educational program must include social living as well as contact with social material. It must include something more than words. Pupils need reality and variety of experience within their own social groups. There is so little opportunity in schools

[28] See Chapter IV of the present yearbook.

[29] The term "American Dream" (i.e., a land of opportunity) has been used by James Truslow Adams in *The Epic of America*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1931. p. 404.

today for socially useful work that schools must resort in part to artificial situations which can be created. Such opportunities as student government with students really making decisions, landscaping the school yard, managing American Education Week and other special occasions, taking charge of the school cafeteria, issuing and financing a school newspaper, all offer real social opportunities.

Such experiences should include as much opportunity as possible to take part in corrective operation within this society. There are few chances for pupils actually to better living, economic, and health conditions, but teachers should be on the lookout for such occasions and utilize them to the greatest possible extent. Investigation of neighborhood and municipal sanitary conditions, street cleaning, safety programs, billboard problems, and fire hazards is not outside the realm of suitable pupil activity.

General Considerations

Formalism—The greatest foe of all progress is formalism. A successful and satisfying project can, if repeated from semester to semester, become stilted and worthless. Even for a teacher to give in one locality a unit of work exactly like one he gave in another might be a serious error, first, because it might not be suitable and, second, because the temperament of the patrons might not be adapted to the outcomes.

Knowledge—Little has been recorded in this chapter regarding the acquisition of knowledge. This is not because knowledge is not considered to be important. The work of Ebbinghaus and others has shown the futility of attempting by memoriter question-and-answer procedure to master unrelated and unassociated factual material. The implication is that even tho knowledge is as important today as it has been in the past, it is acquired more effectively as a byproduct under more natural conditions for the following reasons: (1) the likelihood of retention is greater; (2) facts thus obtained are more properly weighted; (3) knowledge thus obtained is not so likely to be distorted; (4) it is more reliable because the facts are acquired in a more natural setting; (5) it is more likely to lead on to new knowledge because it is learned by association.

Drill—Regardless of the "progressiveness" of the method of teaching, drill is usually necessary. If, for example, after a certain period of time has elapsed there is not available more time to provide natural situations for the student to obtain certain missing elements of the irreducible minimum, drill may be very properly resorted to. Modern principles, however, should be applied in this work also. The alert, progressive teacher knows the principles of drill sufficiently well to make unnecessary any comment here.

Summary

The wise teacher of the social studies will not throw aside old methods merely because they are old nor will he embrace new methods because they are new. Some of the greatest of teachers lived and taught years before anyone now living ever saw the light of day. The aim of the good teacher of the past has been, the aim of the good teacher of the present is, and the aim of the good teacher of the future will be—to discover the spark of interest in the pupil and to fan it into living flame. The employment of methods and devices, old and new, which will further such an objective is always warranted.

In order that the ambitious social studies teacher may be able to discover and to utilize the most effective teaching procedures he himself must have acquired the habits of orderly thinking, must possess a comprehensive knowledge of the literature pertaining to and allied with his field, must have had experience in using tools of research, must possess a sympathetic understanding of civic problems and human relationships as an outgrowth of his actual participation in community affairs, and must be skilful in adapting to the age level of his pupils meaningful and thought-provoking units.

CHAPTER XIII

EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

CONTINUOUS APPRAISAL is essential for the effective direction of the social studies curriculum to the accomplishment of the ends of education and to discharge the responsibilities of the school to the community.

Evaluation is important to pupils and to teachers in guiding learning—Each individual pupil can direct his learning activities most intelligently only as he discovers his needs, his accomplishments, and his difficulties. Without this knowledge he may be guided only by immediate interest, by intuition, or by blind faith in the efficacy of socially approved learning activities. Evaluation is equally important to the teacher. With the acceptance of responsibility for attaining a variety of educational outcomes, and with the realization of the wide individual differences in pupils, it becomes increasingly obvious that the following of prescribed formulas either in content or in method is no guaranty of effective teaching. Instead, the teacher is faced with the obligation of continuous appraisal to find the points at which the curriculum is proving effective for each pupil and to aid the learner in selecting more helpful experiences at those points where the desired progress is not in evidence.

Another most significant purpose of evaluation is to develop more effective materials and procedures of instruction—Current educational literature is filled with enthusiastic advocacy of various types of teaching materials and teaching procedures. Arguments, many of them intensely heated, are to be heard at every educational gathering relative to the possible merits or defects of these materials or procedures. Evidence, however, as to their values for various purposes and for various kinds of pupils is sadly lacking. In medicine, the profession has come to accept the need for thoro and careful testing of drugs and treatments before they are widely used. In education it is equally important to encourage thoro experimentation and to demand careful evaluation both to safeguard the child and to provide for continually improved educational resources available under the intelligent guidance of the teacher for the child's development.

A frequently neglected purpose of evaluation is that of providing the objective evidence for effective cooperation between parents and teachers—The increasing complexity of society has emphasized the importance of the cooperation of the home, of the library, of the church, of the youth movements, and of other community agencies with the school in making signifi-

cant educational progress. Few communities, however, have any carefully considered plans for the intelligent cooperation of these various educational agencies. Wise planning should be based upon continuous appraisal which will reveal the needs of pupils, their progress, and their difficulties. With concrete evidence of this sort it is easier to obtain needed cooperation from parents and community agencies. This cooperation has greater educational significance because it can be directed to points of real need.

Evaluation may be helpful in securing intelligent support for the school from the community—We frequently complain that our schools are poorly supported. In many communities drastic reductions have been made in school expenditures. We have been aroused to the necessity of informing the public about the school. This publicity, however, is frequently confined to minor issues, while the major issue, the educational results of the school, is not mentioned. The public needs to know what the schools are attempting to accomplish, what results are actually attained, what results might reasonably be expected with new plans which the school proposes to institute if support is provided. These last two items are rarely available because most schools do not have adequate programs of appraisal.[1]

Frequently appraisal has been used to enforce external standards upon individual schools—This is a dangerous use of the process of evaluation. The method of evaluation should be such as to encourage a flexible social studies curriculum ever responsive to the changing needs of modern life and to the variations in local conditions. A centralized examining system provides a compulsion which makes it easy to centralize administrative and political power. The result is likely to be a static and inflexible curriculum.

This criticism of centralized control of examinations does not imply that every teacher should construct all of the instruments of evaluation which he may need. Effective methods of evaluation can be more economically perfected by the cooperation of various teachers and test technicians.[2] However, the local school should be free to select and to develop instruments of evaluation which are appropriate for the social studies curriculum in the local school. The program of evaluation must be planned in terms of the purposes and the materials of the curriculum rather than thru forcing the curriculum to follow a predetermined scheme of evaluation.

No statement regarding the purposes of evaluation is complete unless it comments on the use of appraisal in marking or grading pupils—Many par-

[1] The inadequacy of the typical school surveys in providing valid evidence of the significant educational results of the school program is strikingly revealed in the summary of survey technics presented in "Estimating State School Efficiency," *Research Bulletin* 10: 75-134; May, 1932. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

[2] See: Tyler, Ralph W. "Making a Cooperative Test Service Effective." *Educational Research Bulletin* 11: 287-92; May 25, 1932.

ents, pupils, and teachers consider evaluation solely a means for obtaining marks. This is unfortunate. Altho the value of recording and reporting the traditional type of marks is still a subject of controversy, an increasing number of schools are substituting a more detailed analysis of pupil strengths, difficulties, and needs in place of reporting a single mark for each subject.[3] These schools believe that reports to parents about the progress of their children should be so written that they help to secure the intelligent cooperation of the parents in the enterprise of education. They believe that marking as a reward or a punishment for individual pupils is not a desirable purpose. Working for marks rather than for the satisfaction of achievement is a menace to the development of self-direction on the part of the pupil and to his continued self-education beyond the years of formal schooling. Hence, the lessened emphasis upon grades. Whether or not marks are given, the major aims of evaluation should not be forgotten. The more important purposes of appraisal are to furnish information which will help to direct the efforts of the pupil himself and of the teacher, to provide a basis for intelligent cooperation with the school on the part of parents and other educational forces, to give the public a continuous audit of the work of the school so that the community may have an intelligent basis for determining the degree to which it will support the school, and to provide the careful testing which is necessary in the experimental development of more effective materials and instructional procedures.

Difficulties Involved in Current Programs of Evaluation

When current programs of appraisal are examined it is obvious that many of them fail to achieve these major purposes. One of the difficulties has been a narrow conception of the process of evaluation. To many people appraisal is synonymous with giving of written examinations. From this point of view, to evaluate the results of the social studies curriculum it is only necessary to give some paper-and-pencil tests.

Written examinations may be used to give evidence of the information which pupils have acquired, and to reveal various verbal reactions of pupils. However, the social studies curriculum is not concerned with verbal reactions alone. As a result of his experiences in the social studies the pupil should, for example, develop social interests, habits of working more cooperatively with other people, and attitudes favorable to social improvement. A comprehensive program of appraisal should reveal the degree to which

[3] This change in practise was recommended by the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports of the Department of Superintendence in "School Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin* 5: 267-73; November, 1927. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. See also: *New Developments in Pupil Report Cards.* Educational Research Service Circular, No. 4; May, 1934. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. 36 p.

all of these important desired results of the social studies curriculum are actually being realized. Written examinations must be supplemented by other types of evidence which will throw light on the pupil's development. Evaluation, then, is not merely the process of giving and scoring written examinations; it is the process of collecting all kinds of significant evidence showing the degree to which all of the important objectives of the social studies curriculum are being realized. When current programs of appraisal are examined in terms of this conception of evaluation, it is apparent that most of them are not sufficiently comprehensive.

One of the difficult tasks of evaluation is to obtain valid evidence of significant changes taking place in pupils—It is fairly easy to discover the pupil's acquisition of social science information, his knowledge of the vocabulary of the social studies. It is more difficult to determine the degree to which he has learned to use this information and vocabulary in his daily life. It is still more difficult to obtain valid evidence of changes in his attitudes toward social phenomena, to obtain evidence of his deepening interest in social improvement, to discover his increasing sensitivity to social problems, his social habits. Some of us have failed to face this difficulty and have been content to base our evaluation upon informational tests alone. Some of us may have hoped that the degree of information which the pupil has acquired might be a good indication of the degree to which all of these other important desired results have taken place. Investigations of this question, however, have shown that there is not always a high relation between the degree of information which a pupil possesses and the degree to which he has attained other desired results of education. Many pupils have mastered important facts of a subject without having developed the habit of using these facts in their daily lives or without having developed interest in social well-being. The use of information tests alone will not give valid evidence of the degree to which other desired results of the social studies curriculum are being realized. The difficulty of obtaining evidence about some of these less tangible outcomes of the curriculum does not relieve us of the responsibility of collecting such evidence.

A second difficulty involved in current programs of appraisal is to develop methods of evaluation which facilitate rather than hinder the desired learning—Some appraisal programs focus the attention of pupils upon examinations to such a degree that many pupils are working only to pass these tests. Not to experience the satisfaction of learning but to do well on the tests is the prime motivation of many pupils. In some cases the emphasis upon tests has resulted in intense emotional strain on the part of pupils. Instead of finding education an interesting and enjoyable experience, the pupil is continually harassed by the grim nightmare of impending examina-

tions. Some pupils, too, react to current appraisal programs by the method called "cramming." They attempt to memorize verbatim large masses of information which is more or less meaningless to them, for the purpose of giving it back in examinations, after which many of these isolated and meaningless facts are forgotten. Such appraisal programs seriously hinder effective learning. This difficulty can be overcome by changing the character of the examinations and by changing their use. If the program of evaluation is expanded to include a wide variety of types of evidence of pupil growth, and is not restricted to information tests, the incentive to "cramming" is greatly reduced. If the ordeal of annual or semi-annual examinations is replaced by a continuous and cumulative collection of evidence, an appraisal program which is an integral part of the normal learning experiences, the attitudes of pupils can be changed enormously. Testing is not a cataclysmic ordeal but a normal part of their daily work which helps them to evaluate their own efforts, just as keeping score in their daily games helps them to see their progress in acquiring facility in these games.

Another difficulty in appraisal is to obtain evidence of pupil development which is not heavily biased by the partial judgment of some one individual—The highly subjective character of much of our appraisal has frequently been noted. The great impetus which the objective testing movement has had is largely due to the effort to eliminate personal bias from evaluation. Appraisal of pupil progress can never be free from personal judgments but it is possible to reduce markedly the amount of individual bias involved in these judgments. One commonly used method of reducing personal bias is to have several competent persons cooperatively construct specifications for evaluating the pupil's reactions in significant situations. In written tests these specifications are usually called "scoring keys." In other types of test situations such specifications are also useful. Another method of reducing personal bias is to make a fairly objective record of the pupil's reactions in significant situations, records which may be appraised independently from time to time by several competent persons. These objective records of behavior are in contrast to the usual record of the teacher's judgment of the pupil. The latter is more subject to bias and more likely to be colored by the personal idiosyncracies of the teacher than is the record of observed behavior.

Another difficulty in appraisal is to obtain a sufficiently large sample of the pupil's reactions from which to judge his development—It is not uncommon for teachers to draw conclusions about a pupil from one or two of his reactions. In the case of written examinations, sometimes the answers to five or ten questions are used to judge the pupil's development during a

month or even a semester. These are obviously inadequate samples of pupil reactions from which to appraise his development. An appraisal program must involve frequent collection and recording of behavior so that the samples from which our judgments are drawn are large enough to give us a fair picture of each child's reactions.

A fifth problem of appraisal is to conduct a program of evaluation which covers a long enough period of time to discover the degree of permanency of the significant changes taking place in the pupils—Information is frequently acquired for a short period of time, and then forgotten. Habits of work may develop slowly and need to be observed over a long period of time. Those attitudes and interests which are prime factors in human lives are not often developed in a week or a month. Nevertheless, most current programs of appraisal do not follow the pupil over long periods of time. For example, the pupil is tested in the fourth grade for those changes which are primary objectives of the fourth grade. In the fifth grade he is tested for the desired outcomes of the fifth grade and usually without reference to the results of the appraisal in the previous grades. We seem to assume that the work of each year is to be judged solely in terms of the outcomes at the end of that year. The fact that the pupil is a continuously developing organism thruout life seems to be disregarded. An adequate evaluation of the social studies curriculum should involve a continuous study of each pupil and a cumulative record of his development thruout the years of formal schooling and eventually on into adult life. Only in this way can we really appraise the results of the curriculum in its more permanent effects.

In contrast to the difficulty involved in obtaining a long-range evaluation, we are also confronted with the need for methods of appraisal which will reveal changes in pupils taking place over short periods of time—If we are to modify instructional materials and procedures to meet the needs and difficulties of individual pupils, it is imperative that we discover these needs and difficulties before it is too late to make the necessary modifications. To discover early that John is having difficulty with the vocabulary of the social studies gives us opportunity to help him. If we fail to discover this until the last year of his formal schooling little can be done. To find out in the fifth grade that Mary is tending to develop anti-social attitudes enables us to attack her difficulty with hope of success, while to discover this only after she has become highly anti-social makes the possibility of marked change more doubtful. Hence, we need means of evaluation which are sufficiently refined so as to reveal small changes in time to modify the curriculum accordingly. This difficulty can be met by more frequent evaluation and by learning how incipient changes of various sorts are revealed.

A seventh difficulty in appraisal is to give adequate consideration to the pupil's individual pattern of desirable educational goals [4]—The objectives of the social studies curriculum do not represent points to be reached by all pupils but rather directions in which pupils may progress. This is an important distinction.

When objectives are conceived as uniform goals to be attained by all pupils, teaching tends to become an attempt to maintain a lock-step march to these goals, while testing is used to discover whether the pupils have reached the goals. Such a conception omits the vast array of facts regarding individual differences. Individuals differ not only in rate and methods of learning but in interests, needs, and potential abilities. How far each pupil may be expected to progress toward any objective varies with the pupil's needs, his interests, and those abilities of his which are involved in this progress. The several objectives of the social studies thus become directions in which the school may help pupils to progress. Some of these outcomes are of such significance to all members of our society as to be well-nigh universal educational objectives. Some of these outcomes, however, are highly individual. Correspondingly, some pupils will go farther in some directions, while others will make greater progress in other directions. The relative emphasis given to the various objectives will differ from one pupil to another. In this sense, objectives become individualized as do teaching and learning procedures. Each pupil's pattern of goals is distinctly individual. Any evaluation should consider his progress toward objectives appropriate for him. It is much easier to accept the median achievement of a group of pupils as the goal for each person than it is to try to formulate a suitable individual pattern of goals. Hence, the evaluation of each pupil's progress in terms of objectives appropriate for him is rarely made. This difficulty can be overcome by helping the pupil periodically to state his goals and to revise his previous statements in the light of continually accumulating evidence of his needs, abilities, and achievements. In this way tentative individual objectives are validated.

As the individual pattern of objectives is developed the appraisal of each pupil's progress can be made with reference to his goals. This is not as simple as is the common appraisal procedure of adding together a series of numerical scores. Such a conception of evaluation eliminates purely mechanical appraisal and substitutes judgment and thoughtful consideration. However, this does not imply an intuitive appraisal but demands valid judgments based upon the careful collection of comprehensive evidence regarding pupil progress.

To make the program of appraisal effective these defects of current efforts at evaluation must be remedied—The appraisal must be compre-

[4] For a description of a plan of education emphasizing individual goals see: Voelker, Paul F., and others. "A Program of Demonstration and Research." *Educational Record* 16: 207-16; April, 1935.

hensive, it must provide valid evidence of significant changes in pupils, it must facilitate rather than hinder the desired learning, it must be fair and impartial, it must be based upon an adequate sample of each pupil's reactions, it must be projected over a long period of time, it must be sufficiently precise to reveal small changes, and it must be interpreted in terms of the individual pupil's pattern of objectives. These chief difficulties in evaluation can be overcome by careful planning and by thoro experimentation. This is the joint responsibility of teachers and test technicians.

Kinds of Changes in Boys and Girls Which Are Significant in the Light of the Objectives of the Social Studies

In the preceding section, emphasis has been placed on the fact that an adequate program of evaluation should give evidence not merely of the verbal facility of the pupils but of the degree to which all of the important objectives of the social studies are being realized. What kinds of changes in boys and girls do we expect the social studies curriculum to promote? If these kinds of changes are of a few limited types the program of evaluation needs to collect only a few limited types of evidence. If the social studies curriculum is expected to promote a variety of kinds of changes in pupils the appraisal must be correspondingly varied. Hence, the range of objectives determines the necessary range of the evaluation.

A careful perusal of the chapters of the present yearbook reveals a considerable variety in the objectives which social studies teachers may strive to attain. It is expected that pupils will acquire important information about the community, state, nation, and world in which they live, information which will give them a basis for intelligent participation in social life. Many social studies teachers expect their pupils to become familiar with the basic vocabulary of social science so that they may be able to read and comprehend current social science materials. Pupils are frequently expected to be familiar with dependable sources of information on current social issues, and to become relatively immune to malicious propaganda. It is hoped that the pupils will become increasingly able to make reasonable interpretations of social science data, and that they will develop facility in applying significant facts and principles to the social problems of daily life. Particularly in secondary school and college, students are expected to become skilful in investigating social science problems. This involves the ability to use the library and other community resources effectively.

Pupils may be expected to become increasingly interested in reading about social problems and in discussing them. The social studies curriculum ought also to develop in boys and girls increasing sensitivity to current social problems. The social studies program should foster a deepening interest in people and an increased desire that all people shall have an oppor-

tunity to lead "the good life." Many social studies teachers also attempt to assist pupils in developing the habit of working cooperatively with others. Another important habit is that of collecting and considering appropriate evidence before making important social decisions. The social studies curriculum may also be expected to modify the social attitudes of boys and girls. The attitudes of most universal emphasis are those favorable to social improvement. It is expected that pupils will become increasingly concerned with the improvement of our social order.

The mere listing of some of the kinds of changes in boys and girls which are most frequently emphasized by social studies teachers indicates the need for a highly varied program of appraisal. The methods of evaluation in the social studies need to be sufficiently varied to obtain evidence of the pupil's development with respect to information and vocabulary acquired, with respect to his abilities in investigating and solving social problems, with respect to his interests in social issues, with respect to his social habits, and with respect to his attitudes towards society.

Procedures for Evaluation Appropriate to the Changes Desired

1. Acquisition of Important Information

The most common type of appraisal consists in examining pupils to determine the amount of information which they possess. In spite of the frequent use of this kind of evaluation it is often unsatisfactory even as an adequate measure of the facts and ideas which pupils have acquired. Many information tests are so constructed as to encourage rote memorization of words rather than the development of a real understanding of the meaning of these words. For example, the following items taken from tests appearing in current courses of study may be answered by the pupil who has merely memorized the words in the textbook without really comprehending the significance of the statements.

Write *True* before each true statement and *False* before each sentence that is not true.

——— Our continued prosperity depends, to a large extent, upon the conservation of our natural resources.

——— Sanitation plays a large part in the control of disease.

——— Surface, soil, and climate affected the development of the American Colonies.

——— The chief reason for colonizing the New World was the desire for religious freedom.

——— The Crusades stimulated trade.

Write the answers to the following questions:

1. What was England's chief reason for colonizing the New World?
2. What is the Monroe Doctrine?

These test items are poor because they use verbatim the terminology of the textbook and because they demand only the reproduction of verbal statements rather than the use of the facts and ideas. The memorization of statements as an end in itself is rarely of significance in life. It is desirable, however, to acquire important facts and ideas so that they may be utilized in one's thinking and acting. Hence, a good test of the acquisition of information should employ language which is not identical with that used in the textbook and should involve the use of facts and ideas rather than their mere reproduction.[5] The following items taken from the *Iowa Every-Pupil Test* in United States history for 1932 illustrate good items in these respects.

Directions: Select the word or phrase, in each case, which best completes the statement.

The adoption of the Constitution was generally opposed by

(1) Prosperous merchants
(2) Wealthy manufacturers
(3) Small farmers
(4) Holders of public securities.

A factor in the early dynamic rise of the oil industry in the United States was the

(1) Subsidy given to the industry by the government
(2) High protective tariff
(3) Fact that no oil had yet been discovered in other countries
(4) Monopolistic control of transporting and refining facilities.

The test item should be phrased in as lifelike a situation as possible. For example, one might test knowledge of place locations by a question like this: "Would one probably pass thru Minneapolis in driving from Chicago to Los Angeles?" Using items which seem real to the pupils is particularly important in the lower grades.

Another weakness of many information tests is their brevity. Frequently, they include such small samples of significant social information that they are quite inadequate as measures of individual pupils. The use of short answer forms increases the amount of information which may be sampled in a single examination period.[6] Furthermore, the use of learning exercises that require the recall and application of previously learned facts and ideas gives opportunity to extend greatly the sample of information tested without setting aside additional time for formal examinations.

[5] For a discussion of statistical criteria frequently employed in validating information questions see: Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, A. C. *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part IV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. p. 296-301. Certain questionable assumptions are involved in these statistical criteria.

[6] One of the most comprehensive tests of information relative to the current social scene is the *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test,* prepared by A. C. Eurich and E. C. Wilson, and distributed by the Cooperative Test Service, New York City.

2. Familiarity with Technical Vocabulary

An objective emphasized by many social studies teachers which is closely allied to the acquisition of information is the development of familiarity with important technical terms used in the social science field.[7] As with information, the mere memorization of definitions of these technical terms is of little significance in life. More commonly pupils are reading materials which require an understanding of certain technical terms in order accurately to comprehend them. To a much lesser degree technical terms used in social studies are heard in lectures and discussions to which pupils listen and to a still lesser degree the pupils have occasion to use such terms in their own writing and speaking in conditions under which these terms provide a much more effective expression than would familiar non-technical terms. In testing familiarity with technical vocabulary, therefore, it is necessary particularly to discover the degree to which the pupil is increasingly comprehending the meaning of technical terms commonly appearing in important reading materials in the social studies field.

Several problems are involved in testing technical vocabulary. In the first place it is necessary to select the more important technical terms with some care since the number of social science terms in existence is enormous. This selection of terms is primarily a curriculum problem rather than one of evaluation but it is a necessary step in the construction of vocabulary tests. The terms included should be those which commonly appear in the social science materials which the pupils are expected to read. They should also be terms of considerable significance, those requiring accurate understanding in order for the pupils to comprehend materials in which the terms appear. Each vocabulary test should then include a representative and adequate sample of these selected terms.

In the second place, the form of test should be such as to discourage mere memorization of dictionary definitions and encourage a more concrete understanding of meanings. Tests which merely ask for verbatim definitions, or ask such questions as "What is a boycott?" are poor because the pupil who glibly reproduces a dictionary or textbook definition appears to be familiar with the term even tho he may actually fail to comprehend its real meaning. Matching tests and multiple-response tests are more promising forms for testing vocabulary. The selection of the test form in a particular case will depend upon the fineness of discrimination expected of the pupil in his understanding of the meaning of the term. The matching test can be prepared more quickly, and requires less painstaking care in its preparation than does an equally effective multiple-response test of vocabulary. However, the multiple-response test is better adapted to testing very fine discriminations in meaning.

[7] A description of an elaborate study of vocabulary testing in the social sciences is to be found in: Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, A. C., *op. cit.*, p. 155-233.

The matching type of vocabulary test consists of a numbered list of technical terms arranged in alphabetical order and a series of definitions or descriptions of some of these important technical terms. The pupil is asked to read each definition or description, decide what term it is, and place the number of the term opposite the definition or description. The definitions or descriptions should not be worded in dictionary language. The great merit of this type of test is the fact that it permits the use of definitions worded in the language of the pupils and the use of descriptions or illustrations as well as definitions whenever these better characterize the terms as understood by intelligent pupils. It is, of course, necessary to eliminate opportunities for guessing by providing a fairly large numbered list of terms from which the pupil makes his selections and also by providing in the list several terms in each case which might be mistaken for the correct term by those pupils who have too vague an understanding of the term.[8] The following is an illustration of part of a vocabulary matching test:

Directions: Below is a numbered list of terms arranged in alphabetic order. Following this list of terms are definitions or descriptions of some of these terms. Read each definition or description, decide what term it is, then place the number of the term in the parentheses after the definition or description.

1. Corporation	6. Protectorate
2. Embargo	7. Public utility
3. Government ownership	8. Rebate
4. Holding company	9. Sanctions
5. Interlocking directorate	10. Treaty strength

a. A kind of discrimination in freight rates. ( ) a.

b. Measure taken by members of the League of Nations to punish a nation which is an aggressor in war. ( ) b.

c. Forbidden by the Clayton Act. ( ) c.

d. A corporation which deals in the stocks of other corporations. ( ) d.

The multiple-response vocabulary test may be used to test very fine discrimination in the meanings of terms. A test item of this type consists of a term followed by four or five definitions, descriptions, or near synonyms. The pupil is asked to select the definition, description, or near synonym which is most closely allied to the term. The three or four incorrect responses can be made as nearly correct as desired so as to require whatever fineness of discrimination is necessary. Fine discriminations are particularly important in the case of those significant key words the exact meaning of which must be understood to comprehend whole sentences

[8] A more detailed discussion of the construction of matching tests is to be found in: Tyler, Ralph W. "The Master-List as a Device." *Educational Research Bulletin* 10: 1-11; January 7, 1931.

or larger units of reading material. The following are examples of multiple-response items of this kind:

1. A budget is a:
   (1) Bank statement
   (2) Financial plan
   (3) Heavy plan
   (4) Monthly payment
   (5) Cooperative society.

2. A reformer is one who tries to:
   (1) Create dissatisfaction
   (2) Form a new party
   (3) Have new laws passed
   (4) Have the Constitution amended
   (5) Improve conditions.

3. Jurisdiction is the area of control exercised by:
   (1) Congress
   (2) The courts
   (3) Legislatures
   (4) Armies
   (5) Policemen.

4. A subsidy is a sum of money contributed by the:
   (1) Corporations
   (2) Labor unions
   (3) Political parties
   (4) Shipping companies
   (5) Government.

3. Familiarity with Dependable Sources of Information on Current Social Issues

Since misinformation and propaganda are given such wide circulation, the development of familiarity with dependable sources of information on current social issues is highly significant. Pupils need to know where they can turn for reliable information and develop the habit of consulting these dependable sources when seeking light on contemporary questions. This objective involves familiarity with reliable newspapers and magazines, the ability to judge the dependability of books and other written materials, and also implies knowledge of other agencies which may be consulted in obtaining needed facts.

In appraising the development of this objective two types of instruments are useful. When possible the teacher may note the sources of information which the pupil uses in preparing written reports, the sources which he has consulted for the data he presents in class discussions, and the comments which he makes about the value of various sources of information. In addition to this informal evaluation, familiarity with sources of information may be tested by written examinations. One type of test is illustrated below. It is made up of exercises in which several significant

social issues are suggested and the pupil is asked to list beneath each issue the most promising sources of dependable information relative to this issue.

Directions: After each of the following questions, list the best sources of information which will give helpful information on the question.

1. The need for social security legislation.
2. The causes of the conflict between Italy and Ethiopia.
3. The ability of the United States to consume the products it produces.

This test may be made somewhat easier by making the questions more definite. For example:

1. Write the names of two magazines which would be most useful in helping you learn about the Italian-Ethiopian struggle.
2. List three magazines which would be of value in studying the issues of the coming presidential election.

This kind of examination may be set up in another form which is somewhat easier to score. In place of asking the pupil to write the most promising sources, a numbered list of possible sources is given in the test and the pupil is asked to select the most helpful and dependable sources from the list, placing their numbers on the blank line following the question. This type of test is illustrated below:

List of Sources	*Issues*	
1. New York American	a. The causes of the Italian-Ethiopian struggle.	——— a.
2. New York Herald-Tribune		
3. New York Sun		
4. New York Times		
5. New York World Telegram		
6. Literary Digest	b. The issues in the coming presidential election.	——— b.
7. Time		
8. News-Week		
9. Liberty		
10. Saturday Evening Post		

4. Immunity to Malicious Propaganda

Boys and girls are being continuously exposed to propaganda. It is probably impossible so to control our environment that we are not frequently encountering malicious propaganda. Hence social studies teachers frequently emphasize the need for developing immunity to such propaganda. This objective is closely related to the previous one. As the movies, the radio, the newspapers, and other agencies are increasingly affecting boys and girls the significance of this objective is also increasing.

Evidence of immunity to propaganda may be shown informally in a variety of school and out-of-school situations. Notes may be made at frequent intervals of the influence of propaganda upon the ideas of the pupil as shown by his comments in discussions and by his written work. Evi-

dence may also be obtained thru formal test situations. One type of test consists of a series of statements selected so as to include not only facts but also many ideas presented in current propaganda. The pupil is asked to read each statement and indicate whether or not he believes it to be true. This test may be scored by counting the number of statements of propaganda which the pupil marks as true.

Another type of test requires the pupil to judge the probable truth of statements appearing in contemporary reading materials. Each exercise in this test consists of several paragraphs of reading material dealing with current social issues. The pupil is asked to mark those statements in the selection which he does not believe to be true. Such an exercise not only gives evidence of developing skepticism but also provides practise in the careful reading of such materials. The materials chosen for these exercises may include various types likely to involve propaganda such as advertisements, newspaper editorials, political speeches, party platforms, business reports, and so on. Such a test may be scored by counting the number of propaganda items which the pupil marks as untrue.

Other evidences of immunity to propaganda are to be found in the pupil's treatment of conflicting statements appearing in various sources. For example, note could be made of the methods followed by the pupils in trying to get accurate reports on the Italian-Ethiopian war. Evidence of careful treatment of propaganda may be shown by those pupils who seek to get a more accurate picture of the situation by reading reports both from Rome and from Addis Ababa and then attempt to reconstruct the probable truth. A formal test might be developed by presenting in different paragraphs reports from Rome and from Addis Ababa with the request that students prepare a report which represents their best judgments as to the probable facts. Additional evidence relative to this objective may be obtained by noting the reactions of pupils to various so-called primary sources. Thus, for example, the teacher may note the interpretation made by the pupils of comments on the Ethiopian situation from a professor of Italian in an American college, an Italian fruit peddler, an official of a company having heavy investments in Italy, a minister of an African Methodist Episcopal Church, and so on. One type of test for this objective has been developed in connection with the work of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association.[9]

5. Facility in Interpreting Social Science Data

The quantity of social data available to pupils has been increasing rapidly in recent years. Not only do they have many opportunities for direct con-

[9] See exercises under Group 4 of the tests on the use of historical evidence, in Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, A. C., *op. cit.*, p. 302-39.

tact with society but also newspapers, magazines, current books, monographs, and special reports are more and more widely circulated and provide opportunity for boys and girls to gain some understanding of many of the complex social problems confronting us today. The ability to make reasonable interpretations of social data is increasingly important. It is not possible to give pupils today a picture of society which will be highly accurate tomorrow. To deal intelligently with current social problems it is imperative for pupils to keep in touch with current social data and interpret these data intelligently. Hence, the development of facility in making reasonable interpretations of social science data is a significant objective in the social studies.

Altho the importance of this outcome of the social studies curriculum is frequently recognized, few efforts have been made to appraise the progress of pupils in developing this facility. Most tests and examinations do not present data which are new to students, yet if this ability is to be evaluated we need to present to the pupils social data which they have not seen before in order to discover how well they are able to interpret new social science material. In selecting data to be used in such a test care must be taken to make sure that the data used have not been presented in class or in the materials previously read by the pupils. It is also necessary to choose data which are appropriate for the age and grade level of the pupils who are to interpret them. The data which fourth-grade pupils may be expected to interpret will obviously be simpler and easier to interpret than the data appropriate for ninth-grade pupils. Nevertheless, pupils of the fourth grade are confronted daily with social data which they need to learn to interpret accurately and reasonably. Not only will the difficulty of the material vary with the grades but for each grade the sets of data should represent sufficient range in difficulty to give opportunity for all pupils in the group to show their ability.

The direct test of a pupil's ability to interpret social data involves presenting the pupil with sets of data and asking him to interpret these data as comprehensively and as reasonably as possible. This should involve both first-hand contacts and reports. For example, the class might attend a Townsend Plan mass meeting, a party caucus, a meeting of the city council, a factory in operation, and then endeavor to interpret what they saw and heard. At other times material from newspapers, magazines, and books may be used as data, asking the pupils to interpret the material.[10] For the lower grades the pupil's responses may be made either orally or in writing while in the upper grades he will usually write out his interpretations. His ability in interpretation is then appraised by one or more competent per-

[10] Certain aspects of the testing of interpretation are discussed in: Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, A. C., *op. cit.*, p. 302-39.

sons who attempt to judge the quality of these responses. This is a somewhat tedious and time-consuming task. A more practicable test which usually gives results very similar to those obtained from the first type of test consists in presenting the pupil with sets of social data but in place of asking him to write out his interpretations, several interpretations are given. The pupil is asked to judge each interpretation by indicating whether it is a reasonable one to be drawn from the data, or whether it is an interpretation which is possibly true altho not substantiated by the data given, or whether the interpretation is contradicted by the data and could not therefore be true. This type of test can be quickly scored and requires less time to give than does the direct test. The following sample illustrates the test procedure:

Directions: Read the following quotation carefully, and on the basis of the facts given, mark each of the statements with a

T—if it is a true statement.
P—if it might possibly be true, but for which sufficient facts are not given to justify the interpretation.
C—if the statement cannot be true because it is contradicted by the data.

1. "The United States government last week took another step forward in deep determination to keep this country out of war—any war. The step took the form of a proclamation by President Roosevelt, in line with the neutrality resolution passed at the last session of Congress. It listed articles which, after November 30, cannot be manufactured, imported, or exported without a license from the National Munitions Control Board. The President listed these war-materials for licensing: pistols, rifles, machine-guns, larger guns, ammunition, tanks, war-vessels, aircraft, and gas."

America hopes to remain neutral should another war occur.....( )

America will remain neutral should another war occur.....( )

Aircraft may be exported from the United States if a license is secured.....( )

All cotton goods are prohibited from the export list by the National Munitions Control Board.....( )

America is militaristic.....( )

America is pacifistic.....( )

The United States will cooperate with the League of Nations.....( )

2. "The front is changing in man's battle against disease. Part of this is due to the advance of science. Powerful weapons are at hand with which to hold in check such old foes as yellow fever, small pox, diphtheria, and the deficiency diseases like scurvy, rickets, and pernicious anemia. Part of this change results from the appearance and spread of relatively new diseases such as epidemic encephalitis, infantile paralysis, and influenza. But another reason for the change in front, and one

likely to be of increased importance in the future, is the change in the age of the population. The American people are growing older. There are more middle-aged and older persons in the country and fewer children and young adults."

Science has given new methods with which to combat disease.....( )

New diseases are of little importance today.....( )

Smallpox is still difficult to control.....( )

The average age of the American people is increasing.....( )

As a whole, the American population is outgrowing the childhood diseases..( )

Infant mortality is decreasing.....( )

The life expectancy of the American people is decreasing.....( )

A simpler form which is more appropriate for the elementary grades requires only the selection of interpretations which are probably true. The following sample illustrates the form:

Read the following quotation carefully, and then check the statements which seem to be true on the basis of the facts given in the quotation:

"The wives of most gangsters do not participate in the game of matching wits with the law. In 90 percent of the cases they are totally unaware that their husbands are engaged in illegal enterprises. The prisoner's wife is no glamourous creature, but usually a haunted, worried woman who spends her time shielding her children from the truth of their father's whereabouts. Three or four rooms in a run-down tenement are all most of the gangsters provide for their wives and children—installment-house furniture which is usually so much in arrears that it is taken at the time of the husband's conviction and the wife has no money to pay for further installments."

Crime does not pay.....( )

The criminal's wife is usually a partner in crime with her husband .....( )

The criminal's wife usually lives a life of luxury and ease.....( )

The children of criminals may become useful citizens of society.....( )

The gangster usually has a fine home.....( )

The criminal's wife is usually more loyal to her children than to her husband .....( )

6. Facility in Applying Significant Facts and Principles to Social Problems of Daily Life

This desired result of the social studies curriculum should be closely allied to the acquisition of important information. Social information has little significance to pupils unless it is applied to their lives. Except for diagnostic purposes teachers will find it more economical to test the pupil's ability to apply facts and principles in the same situations as those used

to test the acquisition of information. For those pupils having great difficulty in applying facts and principles, a diagnostic test may be used to determine whether their difficulties are primarily due to failure to acquire important information, or to the inability to apply the information, or to both.

The situations in which pupils have opportunity to show their facility in applying facts and principles are those which involve social problems that are meaningful to them. The normal environment of the school itself involves a number of social problems which are meaningful to pupils and these frequently give opportunity for the teacher to observe the pupil's behavior in attempting to solve the problem and to note how effectively he applies facts and principles which are appropriate and with which he is supposedly familiar. These situations are excellent for informal evaluation, but they may need to be supplemented by formal situations in case the teacher does not have opportunity to observe and record the reactions of all the pupils sufficiently often to get a clearer picture of their development with reference to this ability.

More formal testing situations for this outcome may utilize both real and described problems, that is, the teacher may make a conscious effort to confront the pupils with certain real social problems under conditions in which he can observe their reactions and make an appropriate record, or he may use descriptions of significant social problems presented orally or in writing and ask the pupils to work out promising solutions to these problems.

There are three major difficulties in developing effective tests of this type. In the first place, it is not easy to collect a large number of social problems which are meaningful and significant to pupils. However, as the school environment is more closely linked with social living (see Chapter XI) and as the teacher becomes a student of his own pupils it is increasingly possible for him to find social problems which are significant and meaningful to boys and girls in his classes (see Chapter III).

In the second place, many social problems are so complex that the facts and principles which the pupils may be expected to know do not give much assistance in the solutions of these problems. This difficulty may be alleviated by seeking simpler social problems, and by developing situations which treat only certain limited aspects of some of the social problems. It is possible for pupils to work out solutions to some of the simpler problems and to attack certain aspects only of the more complex problems.

The third difficulty in evaluating this outcome is that of making a fair and reasonably objective appraisal of the solutions which pupils may present. The selection of definite points to be evaluated will be found helpful

in this task. For example, the teacher may go thru the answers and judge the degree to which appropriate facts and principles have been used by the pupils. The answers may then be judged with reference to the accuracy of the facts and principles used. Finally, the answers may be judged with reference to the probable value of the solution. By making each of these judgments separately some of the subjectivity is eliminated and the appraisal is likely to be more fair.

Another method which helps to overcome this last difficulty in appraisal is to employ a form of test which may be more easily scored. One form which has sometimes been found to be a fairly good index to the ability to apply facts and principles consists in a series of problems each of which is followed by various proposed solutions and also by various statements, some of which may be helpful in the solution:

Directions: In each of the following exercises a problem is given. Below each problem are two lists of statements. The first list contains statements which can be used to answer the problem. Place a plus sign (+) in the parentheses after the statement or statements which answer the problem. The second list contains statements which can be used to explain the right answers. Place a plus sign (+) in the parentheses after the statement or statements which give the reasons for the right answers.

1. Production in modern industry is speculative and risky. What seem to be effective, feasible solutions? Why?

Possible Solutions

a. Abolition of stock exchanges and produce exchanges. ( ) a.

b. Improvement in the speed and reliability of transportation and communication. ( ) b.

c. Increased use of various types of insurance applicable to business and industrial risks. ( ) c.

d. Production to order rather than in anticipation of demand. ( ) d.

e. Exclusion of amateur speculators and any other speculators whose financial resources are grossly inadequate to cover their margin transactions from organized exchanges. ( ) e.

Reasons

a. The greater the time lapse between the initial stages of production and consumption, the greater is the difficulty of anticipating and supplying the demand. ( ) a.

b. Produce exchanges, and especially stock exchanges, perform no substantial economic service. ( ) b.

c. Professional speculators on the produce exchanges tend to stabilize prices. ( ) c.

d. Hedging, a by-product of speculation on the organized produce exchanges, enables manufacturers to concentrate more effectively upon the problems of production. ( ) d.

The pupil is asked in the preceding test to select the most promising solution and to indicate the statements which he believes give facts and principles most helpful in arriving at a solution. This type of test is helpful insofar as it gives results very similar to those obtained from the test requiring the pupil to write out his own solutions and explanations. Such a test assumes that the principles involved in these problems have been developed in the course so that the students may suggest solutions and reasons for the solutions by using these principles. Obviously where such principles have not been developed in the course the students' answers are merely plausible guesses and the test fails in its purpose.

7. Skill in Investigating Social Science Problems

The development of effective work habits and study skills is an important objective of most of the school subjects. It is not only significant for pupils as they continue more advanced work in the school but it is also important because a major function of the school is to develop those attitudes and technics that will facilitate self-education so that young men and young women will continue to study and to learn beyond the years of formal schooling, and thruout their lives. The peculiar responsibility of the social studies is to develop those work habits and study skills which are of particular significance in the investigation of social problems.

These investigational skills are somewhat varied and involve aspects which have already been discussed. They involve the ability to analyze social problems, the ability to determine the kinds of information needed in attacking these problems, the skills involved in obtaining information from libraries, from personal interviews, from observations, and from other community resources, the ability to evaluate information as to its relevancy and dependability, the ability to organize data and to present the results of the investigation. Published tests are available for several of these specific skills.[11] Tests on the use of the library, reading tests in which the reading material is appropriate for the social studies, map-reading tests, tests on the reading of charts and graphs, and tests on the organization of material have been used in many schools and found helpful.

The testing of these specific skills individually is particularly useful in diagnosis when seeking to locate the difficulties of those pupils who show notable deficiencies in their attempts to make investigations. For more general purposes it will be more economical of time to appraise the pupil's

[11] For example, see: Kelley, Truman L., and Krey, A. C., *op. cit.*, p. 235-95; the *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests in Study Habits and Skills,* College of Education, Iowa State University; the *Wrenn Study Inventory,* Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California; the *Van Wagenen Reading Scales in History,* Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.; *Brueckner-Cutright Essential Location Exercises in Geography,* Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis; *Forney Test in Map-Reading Abilities,* Ginn and Co., Boston.

skill in study as a whole rather than testing for each of the more specific skills individually. A general appraisal of the pupil's skill in study may be obtained from situations which require the use of the various work habits and study skills which are significant in the social studies. A test procedure developed in the Bronxville (New York) High School illustrates such a method of appraisal. The pupils in the social studies class were given a very general problem for investigation. They were asked to analyze this problem so as to locate some of the more specific questions which would need to be answered in order to work out a solution for the general problem. They were then to select one of these important specific questions and during the testing period were to investigate this problem, finally developing a report to be submitted to the teacher. In investigating this question they were expected to determine the kinds of information which they would need to collect in order to answer the question, to know where this information might be found, to consult these sources of information and obtain the data needed, and to organize and present the data in the form of an effective written report. The general subjects for investigation were chosen so as to give the pupils an opportunity to show their ability to use the school library and the city library, to consult local organizations in getting pertinent information, to make appropriate observations, and to utilize certain facts which they had already obtained in their study. In administering this test in Bronxville, one entire school day was set aside for the investigation. Altho this may seem to be an unduly large expenditure of time it is hardly possible to make a complete investigation in less time. To determine how effectively pupils in the social studies had learned to make investigations was considered important enough to devote one full day to such testing about once each semester. Those pupils who showed marked deficiencies in carrying thru such an investigation could then be given more diagnostic tests to find out the nature of these deficiencies.

8. Interest in Reading about Social Problems and in Discussing Them

The functioning of effective social behavior in daily life is somewhat related to the interests which people have in reading about social problems and in discussing them. Extensive studies of the reading done by American adults have shown that only a small percentage of persons read material dealing with social problems, and that much of this material is not reliable. To have well-informed citizens we need people who are interested in informing themselves upon social questions and in investigating social problems when such questions are forced upon them. The development of this interest probably progresses slowly thruout the elementary school, secondary school, and college. At the elementary-school level this interest will be shown

in the reading of materials appropriate for younger children, but the interest may be just as deep and just as significant as the more mature interest exhibited by college students. In evaluating this objective, the most significant instrument is the pupil's diary of reading done. A cumulative record of free reading done by pupils provides important evidence of pupil development in several directions. To obtain from pupils an honest and accurately kept record involves their frank cooperation. This rapport is more easily secured when pupils understand that the records will not be used as a basis for grading them or marking them in any way, but that they will frequently be used in advising them about other appropriate reading materials which might interest them. To be most useful in indicating development, this record of reading should be cumulative and kept from grade to grade. It should include reading done in newspapers, magazines, and books, together with a statement of the reason for reading the material—that is, whether it was a school assignment or free reading, and, if possible, some indication as to whether the pupil liked the material or not.

A comprehensive evaluation of a reading record is a difficult task. Waples, of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, and his students are working on a scheme for such a comprehensive appraisal of cumulative reading records. It is somewhat easier, however, to evaluate these records from the point of view only of the objective being discussed here. The development of interest in reading about social problems may be shown by the increased proportion of the reading time devoted to materials dealing with social problems and by the increasing range of the social problems covered in these reading materials. These two factors can be determined rather objectively from a periodic examination of the reading records.

Evidence of interest in discussing social problems may be shown informally in the classroom and on the playground. As the teacher observes the pupils, notes may be made of the frequency with which pupils discuss social questions in periods when they have opportunity for a wide range of discussion.

This objective may be tested more formally thru the use of certain types of written devices. The validity of these devices depends largely upon the rapport which the teacher secures with his pupils. If the pupil really expresses his honest likes and dislikes these devices may prove helpful and thus facilitate the evaluation. One device for obtaining evidence of the interest pupils have in reading about social problems and in discussing them consists of a blank which lists a number of activities of varying degrees of interest to pupils together with the activities involved in reading about social problems and in discussing them. The pupil is asked to rank these activities in the order of interest to him, that is, he is to rank as

No. 1 the activity which he enjoys doing most, as No. 2 the activity which he enjoys next most, and so on. A variation of this device which is probably a more accurate method of measuring relative interests is the paired comparison method.[12]

A sample of a portion of this type of blank is given below. In the paired comparison method, the pupil is asked to consider two activities at a time and to indicate which he prefers. This involves a more simple judgment on his part and is more likely to be a somewhat better picture of the relative degree of interest which he has in the different activities included in the blank. By including a variety of activities appropriate to the social studies curriculum, it is possible to get some evidence of his relative interest in these activities in comparison with other activities ranging from those which are very interesting to pupils of his age, down to those which are quite distasteful.

Directions: We want to know what things you do in social studies courses which you find interesting and how interesting these things are compared with other things you do in your leisure time. On the following pages are listed many things which are done in social studies courses and also some of the things which you may do in your leisure time. These are arranged in pairs so that you can decide which of the two you like better in each pair.

In each pair, mark (+) the one which you would rather do. For example, in the first one, if you would prefer to go to the movies mark it thus:

Go swimming ..... ( )
Go to the movies ..... (+)

Mark every pair in this way. Your answers will have nothing to do with your grade in the course. We really want to know how interesting the social studies activities are. Please be perfectly honest in marking this list.

1. Go swimming ..... ( )
   Go to the movies ..... ( ) 1.
2. Study history textbooks ..... ( )
   Go camping ..... ( ) 2.
3. Try to find answers to a question involving social science .. ( )
   Go on a sight-seeing trip ..... ( ) 3.
4. Go to a concert ..... ( )
   Go to a club meeting ..... ( ) 4.
5. Work in the social studies laboratory ..... ( )
   Study chemistry textbook ..... ( ) 5.

(These are only a few items from a longer list.)

9. Sensitivity to Current Social Problems

In many schools, teachers are recognizing that our generation is confronted with a variety of social problems for which no ready-made solutions

[12] Weedon, Vivian. "A Technique for Determining Interest." *Educational Research Bulletin* 13: 191-97, 231-34; November-December, 1934.

are available. They are concerned that boys and girls shall become sensitive to these problems even tho they cannot be immediately solved. This is a major objective of many social science curriculums. The term "sensitivity" is used in this connection to include several aspects of behavior. It is expected that the pupil will be aware of critical social problems, that he will be able to analyze these problems in such a way as to see their implications and the more specific questions which they involve, that he will be concerned about these problems and will seek to develop solutions for them.

The evaluation of such complex behavior is a difficult task.[13] At present, there is no simple device for appraising this objective which has been shown to be valid. The informal situations of the classroom and the playground are likely to provide evidence most useful in evaluation of such behavior. Under the guidance of J. A. Randall, president,[14] the faculty at Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute developed a practicable plan for making and maintaining a behavior journal made up of a series of anecdote records which are highly valuable in appraising complex behavior of this sort. The anecdote record consists of an objective description of a significant reaction of the pupil and of the setting in which the reaction took place. By collecting such descriptions over a period of time a picture is obtained of the pupil's development which is likely to be more objective and free from bias than a collection of ratings or subjective judgments of the pupil. The natural tendency on the part of teachers to interpret a pupil's reactions before collecting a large enough sample of his behavior from which to make a valid judgment is one of the reasons for the unsatisfactory character of many rating schemes. The failure to remember many significant pupil reactions makes it desirable to record these reactions from day to day and then to interpret them when enough have been collected to give a reasonably reliable picture of the development of the boy or girl.

The use of this behavior record both in the elementary school and in the high school gives an opportunity to appraise the pupil's growth in social sensitivity. For this record to be valid teachers need to be on the lookout for those situations which give the pupil a chance to reveal his sensitivity, that is, his awareness of social problems, his ability to sense the implications of these problems, his personal concern that these problems be solved, and his attempt to do something about the more significant ones. The cumulative record may be appraised by the teacher and by other competent persons annually or semi-annually.

[13] With smaller children the time sampling technic has been effectively used. See: Olson, Willard C. "Study of Classroom Behavior." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 22: 449-54; September, 1931. ¶ Olson, Willard C. "Measures of Character and Personality thru Conduct and Information." *Review of Educational Research* 5: 273-90; June, 1935.

[14] Randall, John A. "The Behavior Journal." *Progressive Education*, Vol. 13. No. 1; January, 1936.

10. Interest in Human Welfare

Increasing interest in the well-being of other people and an increasing desire that all people shall have an opportunity to lead "the good life" should be major outcomes of an effective social studies curriculum. A deep concern for people should be developing thruout the years of education. The significance of this objective has long been realized, but its evaluation is not easy. Valid evidence of this social concern is probably best obtained thru the use of behavior records. If the teacher is on the lookout for those acts and those statements which will throw light upon the motivation of the pupil, he will find increasing opportunity to record evidences which indicate his degree of concern for the well-being of mankind. Altho the keeping of such anecdote records is not an easy task, their value for teaching purposes as well as for evaluation is sufficient to justify the expenditure of the time required to get the picture of pupil development which such records provide. In the life of the school and outside of the school, pupils are continually giving evidence of their deeper interests and motivation. Their attitude toward other pupils, their concern about the well-being of other pupils, are frequently revealed in such situations.[15] The decision of the teachers to keep records of incidents which throw light upon this motivation and the habit of recording such incidents day by day result eventually in a practicable procedure for providing evidence both valuable and important in any comprehensive plan of evaluation. The development of interest in human welfare must not be left to chance, and its appraisal is also a matter for systematic effort.

11. The Habit of Working Cooperatively with Others

Cooperation is frequently emphasized as a vital technic of modern society. Much of the work in the schools, however, has emphasized individualism. Cooperation is probably most effective among persons who have become habituated to working with others. Hence, this habit is frequently mentioned as an objective of the social studies.

Evaluation of the habit of working cooperatively with others is dependent upon three things. First, frequent opportunity should be provided for pupils to work together cooperatively. In the second place, the teacher will need to observe the reactions of pupils when given opportunity to work cooperatively together in order to note the degree of cooperation shown. In the third place, it is necessary to make systematic records of these observations so that they may be available from time to time for evaluation and so that they may show evidence of the degree to which working together cooperatively has become habitual on the part of each pupil. By making such

[15] For attempts at more formal testing see the tests published by the Association Press, New York City.

observations periodically and by developing a shorthand method of recording the reactions of each pupil it is possible to keep records of this type without a great expenditure of time. These may then be evaluated once or twice each year.

12. The Habit of Collecting and Considering Appropriate Evidence before Making Important Social Decisions

Many important social decisions are made by persons who do not attempt to collect any evidence which might be helpful in making such decisions. The tendency to reach conclusions without attempting to obtain pertinent, available facts is altogether too common. Intelligent citizenship demands, however, the attempt to solve problems thru the use of all appropriate information which can be made available within the time limits which the decision permits. Recognizing this, many teachers of the social studies consider the development of the habit of collecting and considering appropriate evidence as a significant objective in the social studies. The most valid evidence of the attainment of this objective may be obtained thru the use of behavior records similar to those suggested for the preceding objective. Opportunity needs to be provided for the pupils to make important social decisions, that is, decisions which are important for pupils of the age level concerned. The teacher needs to observe the pupil's reactions when given opportunities to make social decisions. Finally, records must be kept of the pupil's reactions in these situations, so as to have some evidence of the degree to which his reactions have become habitual. It is obvious that the behavior record is a valuable means of determining the habits which boys and girls are developing and is also an important method of collecting evidence which may be used in the appraisal of the curriculum.

13. Attitudes Favorable to Social Improvement

Various specific attitudes have been suggested by social studies teachers as of considerable importance, but there is no universal agreement as to the significance of all of these specific attitudes. However, those attitudes favorable to social improvement are generally deemed highly important in a changing society. The development of such attitudes in young people is of major concern in many social studies courses.

Much research has been done in the measurement of social attitudes. Many devices for appraisal have been developed but most of them are more helpful to teachers of college students or of older secondary-school students than they are to elementary-school teachers.[16] Evidence of developing attitudes may be shown informally by pupils in their actions, in their conver-

[16] Thurstone, L. L., and Chave, E. J. *The Measurement of Attitude*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. 96 p.

sations, in their discussions, and in written papers. This objective also presents another opportunity for the effective use of behavior records. Records of the pupil's reactions in a variety of situations which give him opportunity to express his concern over social improvement form a helpful basis for the appraisal of this objective.

For more formal appraisal procedures, various types of attitude scales or attitude indicators have been developed. These attitude scales are not measures of the habitual reactions of pupils under varieties of circumstances, but represent a means of obtaining their opinions about various social issues or of checking their agreement or disagreement with the opinions of others. To the degree that the verbally expressed opinions of pupils differ somewhat from their habitual tendencies to react, these scales are not measures of attitudes as commonly defined. They are, however, measures of beliefs or at least of intellectually accepted opinions and have real significance. When rapport is established with pupils and they give honest expressions of their own opinions or of their agreement or disagreement with the beliefs of others, the use of attitude scales represents an important method of evaluation.

For college students and adults, Thurstone, Allport, and their students have developed a large number of attitude scales dealing with specific social issues. Most of these are not directly applicable to the lower grades or to the early years in high school. In many cases, it is necessary for teachers to develop scales for use in their own classrooms which contain statements of opinions expressed in language commonly used by younger pupils. A few samples of devices for indicating attitudes appear below.

Directions: Mark each word in the following list with a + if you feel favorable, or with a — if you feel unfavorable toward it. If you are uncertain, mark the word with an X. If you feel quite strongly favorable or unfavorable toward any word, encircle it ⊕ or ⊖ as shown.

(Part of a list prepared for use with elementary-school pupils.)

1. a mob
2. war
3. a strike
4. Sunday school
5. soldiers
6. foreigner
7. peace
8. patriotism
9. alcohol
10. Hitler

(Part of a list prepared for use with high-school pupils.)

1. imperialism
2. arbitration
3. invasion
4. lynching
5. military preparedness
6. democracy
7. nationalism
8. autocracy
9. League of Nations
10. protective tariff

Directions: Mark each sentence in the following list with a + if you feel favorable, or with a — if you feel unfavorable toward it. If you are uncertain, mark the sentence with an X. If you feel quite strongly favorable or unfavorable toward any sentence, encircle the ⊕ or ⊖ as shown.

(Part of a list prepared for use with adults.)

1. The government of the United States is more nearly a democracy than is that of England.
2. America for the Americans.
3. We are less likely to get into a war if we have a strong army and navy.
4. High protective tariffs always benefit the laboring class.
5. The white race is intellectually superior to any other race.
6. America should join the League of Nations.
7. All Chinese and Japanese immigrants should be excluded from the United States.
8. Communists should not be allowed to advocate their policies in the United States.
9. Italy should be given Ethiopia in order to develop her rich mineral resources.
10. The United States must protect all foreign investments of her citizens under all circumstances.

Another form in common use is developed to give a more exact scale value to the reactions expressed. A portion of such a form follows:

Points of View about Social Science Problems

Directions: The following statements represent various opinions about certain social science problems. Read each statement and then place a check mark after the statement to indicate your own opinion about the statement. Since these statements deal with unsettled questions the exercise is not to be marked as true or as false, but you are to express your own point of view about it. If you agree with the opinion expressed by the statement place a check in the parentheses under *Agree;* if you disagree with the statement place a check mark under *Disagree;* if you are uncertain about your own opinion place a check mark under *Uncertain.* Do each exercise in this way.

I.—Statements about Family Life

	Agree	*Disagree*	*Uncertain*	
1. Marriage should be entered upon as a life-long union.	( )	( )	( )	1.
2. Prospective marriage mates should be required to secure certificates of good health.	( )	( )	( )	2.
3. A married woman's place is in the home, not working outside the home for pay.	( )	( )	( )	3.

These attitude tests are given periodically to note changes in attitude on the part of each pupil and the direction of these changes.

Developing a Comprehensive Program of Evaluation To Cover the Social Studies Curriculum

In listing a series of possible objectives of the social studies and in suggesting various means by which the degree of attainment of these objectives might be appraised, the reader may be left with the impression that any comprehensive evaluation of the social studies curriculum is impossible because it involves the appraisal of so many types of behavior and the use of such a variety of instruments as to make it too cumbersome for the classroom teacher to employ. The appraisal program must be workable or it fails thru its own weight.

A comprehensive program of evaluation can be made practicable, however, when certain major considerations govern it—In the first place, when appraisal is made an integral part of the learning process, it is not necessary to set aside separate blocks of time for testing. The activities of learning and of evaluation go hand in hand and the record of the pupil's activities in learning, the products of his activities, the results of his own efforts and experiences, are frequently records for appraisal. In the second place, when the pupil realizes the significance of evaluation for him and is encouraged to make self-appraisals, it is possible for him to collect much significant evidence of his own development without placing an undue burden either upon him or upon the teacher. The self-evaluation records being developed in the Denver high schools under the direction of Guy Fox illustrate the practicability of this procedure as one major aspect of appraisal.

In the third place, considerable economy of effort is made possible by the fact that many situations can be used for evaluation in which the reactions of the pupils throw light on their development in several directions. For example, an inventory of the resources and needs of the local community by a seventh-grade pupil threw light upon his attitude toward the functions of social and economic processes, his ability to use certain types of social science information, his ability to understand and to use some technical terms in the social studies field, his facility in written expression, his understanding of certain significant social and economic relationships, his ability to construct and to interpret certain kinds of maps and charts. Test situations of this sort make it possible to collect significant evidence relating to several desired outcomes of the curriculum without consuming a relatively large amount of time in the mere process of appraisal. More analytical evaluation procedures can then be used for diagnosis only with those pupils whose satisfactory progress is not revealed in these complex situations, and only at those points where difficulties are encountered. This is similar to the procedure employed by the physician who makes elaborate

diagnoses only of patients whose general health is in question and only at those points, such as the lungs, the heart, the digestive tract, where general deficiencies are evidenced.

A fourth consideration in the development of practicable methods of evaluation is the possibility of developing indexes of pupil progress in those aspects of his growth which are difficult to appraise directly. We are, of course, familiar with the use of an index in physical measurement. Ordinarily, we do not measure the temperature of the air in a room by direct measurement. To do so would require the determination of the average mass of the molecules of air and their average velocity. Instead, we use a thermometer. A thermometer does not measure temperature directly. It measures the amount of expansion of a column of liquid. The thermometer can be used as a valid index of temperature because it has been found again and again that there is a high correlation between the change of temperature in the air in a room and the expansion of the liquid in the bulb of the thermometer. Similarly, some types of human behavior which are difficult to appraise directly can be practicably tested by certain indirect evidences which serve as indexes of the desired behavior.[17] To develop such indexes is usually a task for research workers in the field of evaluation but as these indirect measures are developed and validated they become useful appraisal instruments for teachers whenever they provide a practicable means for evaluating certain pupil changes which cannot be practicably appraised by direct methods. One important caution needs to be observed when using indexes of behavior. An indirect measure should not be used unless it has been shown by actual comparisons that this indirect measure does give results similar to those which are obtained from the direct measures of the desired behavior. It is not enough for the indirect measures to be practicable; they must also be valid.

The difficulties involved in developing a practicable program of evaluation can be overcome. By making the appraisal an integral part of the learning process, by encouraging the pupil to make his own evaluations, by utilizing situations for evaluation which throw light upon the pupil's development in several directions, and by employing indexes of pupil development at those points where the collection of direct evidence is highly impracticable, a comprehensive program of appraisal which is also practicable can be developed.

In planning a comprehensive appraisal program it will be helpful to list the major objectives which are being emphasized for the particular class in question—Then, in connection with each of these objectives, the teacher

[17] Tyler, Ralph W. "A Generalized Technique for Constructing Achievement Tests." *Educational Research Bulletin* 10: 199-208; April 15, 1931.

will list the opportunities which he will have for collecting evidence of this type of behavior. In many modern schools learning situations are provided which are sufficiently lifelike so that they give an opportunity for the teacher to learn something of the pupil's attitudes, something of his work habits and study skills, something of the information which he has acquired, something of his skill in interpreting data, something of his concern for the well-being of other pupils, something of his habits of working cooperatively with other people. As the teacher lists these opportunities which he will have for collecting evidence on each of these objectives, he will find that the number of special evaluation instruments which he will need to use beyond those which would normally be used in the day-by-day activities of the classroom is not large. He will probably want to have a daily record of the reading done by pupils, he may want to give special tests involving interpretation of data, he may want to give separate tests on the technical vocabulary of the social studies, he may want to test the acquisition of the more important facts, but these instruments may be administered periodically and so planned that during any one week only a small portion of the time may be used for such appraisal purposes.[18]

Continuous evaluation is too important to dismiss by the easy explanation that it is impracticable—Continuous evaluation is essential to determine the degree of effectiveness of the social studies program and to obtain an intelligent basis for curriculum improvement. An adequate program of appraisal provides evidence of the degree to which all of the important purposes of the social studies are being realized. To this end, teachers will increasingly use a variety of evaluation methods instead of limiting themselves to written examinations. A comprehensive plan of appraisal also involves cumulative studies of pupils and cumulative records of their behavior beyond the years of formal schooling so that the relative permanency of these educational experiences may be determined. Evaluation is necessary, it is practicable, but it involves a new conception of methods of appraisal which modify radically our present procedures.

[18] In finding commercial tests two bibliographies are helpful. *A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*, by Gertrude H. Hildreth (New York: Psychological Corporation, 1933. 242 p.), lists tests published prior to 1933. *Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1933 and 1934*, by Oscar K. Buros (New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, 1935. 44 p.), lists more recent tests. A commercial test is useful only if it appraises pupil progress toward one or more objectives of the course.

CHAPTER XIV

CONTINUOUS CURRICULUM REVISION

AMERICA HAS WITNESSED MORE ACTIVITY in course-of-study construction by local communities during the last fifteen years than in all its previous history. Prior to 1925 fewer than fifteen hundred courses of study had been published in the United States.[1] In arriving at this figure, any two pages in a superintendent's report, labeled "Course of Study," was dignified by that name and counted. In a large majority of the cases, the so-called courses of study consisted of little more than a list of the pages which pupils were required to cover in their textbooks. As a result of the very greatly increased activity in local communities, particularly in the last ten years, over thirty-five thousand courses of study have reached one curriculum laboratory; and these probably represent less than 50 percent of the total number in the country. At the present time, the movement is going forward at an increasing tempo. Literally thousands of teachers, supervisors, and administrators in state, city, village, and rural situations are busily engaged with the task of attempting to modify or reconstruct the curriculums of the schools in which they work. As has been pointed out in Chapter X, more attention has been directed toward course-of-study revision in the field of the social studies than in any other. As a result, in the last ten years, more than twice as many courses have been produced in the field of the social studies as in its nearest competitor, language arts. This difference is partly due to the fact that in a large majority of communities the curriculum revision program starts with the social studies.

At the beginning of this new curriculum movement, 1920-25, the notion seemed to be fairly prevalent that the work could be finished by an intensive drive of from two to five years. The experience of the communities inaugurating these two- to five-year programs naturally led to the almost unanimous decision that the problems of curriculum revision, like death and taxes, will be with us always. Hence, most of these programs have developed into a continuous effort to adjust or rebuild the curriculum offerings. In this chapter, an attempt will be made to point out the major problems and steps of procedure involved in a program of continuous curriculum revision, with special reference to the field of the social studies.[2]

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[1] From an unpublished manuscript by Florence Stratemeyer and Herbert B. Bruner, *Rating Elementary School Courses of Study*. 1926. 193 p.

[2] For suggestions as to which officers should carry responsibilities in a program of curriculum revision and as to the organization of the personnel see: David, Flavius L. *The Selection and Organization of Personnel for Curriculum Revision*. Curriculum Laboratory Bulletin No. 30. Cleveland, Ohio: School of Education, Western Reserve University, 1932, mimeographed, 56 p. Consult also the references cited at the end of this chapter.

Major Questions Which Should Be Answered in Any Sound Program of Continuous Curriculum Revision

Altho the questions arising in connection with a program of continuous curriculum revision are legion, any careful study of typical programs would indicate that practically all, if not all, could be subsumed under the following six major questions: (1) What kind of world do we live in and what kind of world should we have? (2) What philosophy of life and education can and should we build? (3) What guiding principles shall we set up for constructing curriculum materials in consonance with the philosophy at which we have arrived? (4) How can we actually construct materials most effectively? (5) How can these materials be given the most revealing tryouts? (6) How can the work be continuously evaluated?

What Kind of World Do We Live In and What Kind of World Should We Have?

In former times, as well as in many instances today, course-of-study makers in any particular field, such as the social studies, would begin their task by making a direct attack upon the reorganization of subjectmatter within the field, paying little attention to the purposes it might serve in arriving at an answer to the question stated above. The kaleidoscopic world happenings of the last few years have led many of those dealing with education to believe that such an approach is apt to have serious shortcomings. This statement is true since the subjectmatter chosen under such a procedure often lacks the pointedness and utility it would have if developed in an attempt to arrive at a better answer to the question: "What kind of world do we live in, and what kind of world should we have?" In preparing curriculum materials in any field, a consideration of the kind of world in which we live and which we should have, from a sociological, economic, political, and esthetic point of view, should be paramount. It is especially true for such content fields as the social studies, science, and literature, that the philosophy we hold and the subjectmatter and activities necessary to attain the aims we set up should be formulated in the light of as careful study as can be made of world conditions and the possibilities for their improvement. In Chapter I of this yearbook will be found a discussion of some of the fundamental elements of the society in which we live.

What Philosophy of Life and Education Can and Should We Build?

"As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he." That a sound personal and professional philosophy is one of the prime requisites for the individual successful in education, would be denied by few. A philosophy predicated upon a thoughtful study of existing and possible social conditions is highly desirable for the curriculum-maker in any field, especially the social studies.

With the maelstrom of social theories abroad in the land, and the plethora of ideas regarding education, it is little wonder that the administrator or teacher finds difficulty in formulating a sound philosophy for himself, to say nothing of setting up a scheme of tenets to which any large number of his fellows will subscribe. The part of wisdom seems to dictate that careful consideration should be given to all the major schools of thought which might have possible contributions for education to the end that the kind of philosophy may be formulated which will best represent the informed thinking of those involved in the program and will do most toward attaining the ends they have in mind. Adherence to democratic principles would demand, of course, that minority points of view in the committees working on the program be given adequate recognition. Chapters II, III, and IV contain many of the fundamental ideas which should be considered in formulating a philosophy.

What Guiding Principles Shall We Set Up for Constructing Curriculum Materials in Consonance with the Philosophy at Which We Have Arrived?

After a clear statement of philosophy, arrived at democratically, has been made available, principles for constructing curriculums should be developed which will guide administrators, course-of-study committees, and teachers in building and using curriculum materials. These principles usually should be succinct statements of the philosophy or points of view to which the group subscribes.

Many examples of these statements are to be found in the best courses of study. The following principles, prepared by a group of graduate students, and not necessarily acceptable to all teachers, are cited for purposes of illustration:

SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION [3]

I. Underlying philosophy
   A. Basic assumptions
      1. A philosophy of education grows out of the ideal set up for the society of which that education is a part.
      2. Teachers should have an educational philosophy which should constantly be in the process of conscious, critical reformation and should be used as a basis for the evaluation and reconstruction of practise.
   B. Life values
      1. Growth in the ability to make one's own experiences ever more meaningful and socially valuable is the highest human good; it is the best realization of life values.
   C. The ideal society
      1. The best society is that in which each individual so acts that he contributes maximally to the meaningfulness of experience of each other individual.

[3] These principles have been adapted from an unpublished committee report made by a group of graduate students (Fred M. Alexander, J. Earl Davies, G. A. Boyce, S. U. Cacanindin, and Thomas J. Francis) in the Curriculum Construction Department, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934.

2. A characteristic of the best society is that it does not accept any form of social organization as final, but provides for change and helps direct it.

D. The nature and function of education

1. Education is the effort of society to direct the growth of individuals towards socially useful ends.
2. The school is only one of many institutions and agencies by means of which society attempts to direct the growth of individuals.

II. The role of the school in social reconstruction

A. The school is an agency of society for its improvement and continuous reconstruction.

B. The school should orient the student in the life of which he is a part.

C. The school should participate in society's program of social reconstruction to the end of realizing a preferred social order, cooperative in its nature.

III. Underlying psychology

A. Self-activity is fundamental to learning.

B. Learning takes place most effectively and economically in the matrix of a situation which grips the learner, which to him is vital and worthwhile.

C. Learning is most effective when a pupil has a dominating purpose.

D. There are enormous differences in the interests and capacities of members of a class.

E. The school must give conscious practise in problem-solving which offers first-hand experiences. Then and only then can there be wholehearted planning, collecting of facts, consulting, observing, and using of imagination in seeking possible solutions.

IV. The nature of the curriculum

A. Philosophy of the curriculum

1. The curriculum may be defined as all those experiences which children have within the influence and under the general or specific direction of the school.
2. Since the school is responsible to the society of which it is a part, the curriculum of the school should deal with all points of view relating to the large social issues within that society.
3. The curriculum must deal with the present in the light of past experience; but it also has an obligation to anticipate the future for the purpose of the continuous improvement of society.

B. The curriculum and subjectmatter

1. The entire environment is potential subjectmatter. Whenever the school touches a particular area of the environment, that area then becomes subjectmatter of the curriculum.
2. The environment is dynamic and therefore constantly changing. For this reason the curriculum must be constantly changing.
3. Subjectmatter must be thought of as means to be used, rather than ends to be acquired.

C. The curriculum and the learner

1. The learner must eventually set up his own goals or objectives.
2. Thru his own interests, purposes, and needs, the learner helps to determine the content of the curriculum with the guidance of the teacher.
3. Each learner is different from every other one, therefore, opportunities must be provided for each individual to vary his interactions with his environment in ways most meaningful and productive of his growth rather than by conformity to a set pattern.

D. The curriculum and the teacher
   1. The teacher should look upon the curriculum as continuously changing.
   2. The teacher should make available for pupil use as large and as rich a collection of materials for study as possible.
   3. The teacher should be a guide to assist pupils, thru his larger experience, to attain increasing control over the materials with which they are dealing and thus enable their experience to become richer and more meaningful.

V. Considerations for curriculum construction
   A. Curriculum-making should be comprehensive and continuous.
   B. Curriculum-making in a given situation should build from the best existing practise in that situation.
   C. Courses of study should suggest points of view, teaching and learning procedures, scope of contemporary social problems, activities, subjectmatter, and other raw materials with which pupils with the guidance of teachers can build experience units of work, thus providing free play for pupils to enlarge and direct their own experiences.
   D. The findings of experts should be used but since curriculum-making is a cooperative enterprise, classroom teachers and all members of the school system in any unit, local or state, should participate actively in a curriculum program.
   E. Courses of study should always be tentative.
   F. Experimental tryout in typical and varied classroom or learning situations should precede widespread use of a new course of study.
   G. Courses of study should not be imposed upon teachers.
   H. Installation should be gradual and should proceed with the cooperation of the teachers concerned.
   I. Curriculum-making is a community enterprise and should provide for participation of lay individuals and groups.
   J. Curriculum programs should utilize the best available expert advice and leadership from outside the school system as well as outside the immediate community.
   K. All curriculum programs should have adequate financial support to insure success.

Chapter V of this yearbook, used in connection with Chapters II, III, and IV, gives a much needed background for determining guiding principles.

How Can We Actually Construct Materials Most Effectively?

In answering this question, the superintendent and his helpers must take into account the actual conditions under which they are working, and relate these to the answers to the two questions just discussed. The social and physical equipment of the pupils, the preparation of the teachers, the composition and temper of the community and of the board of education, the physical equipment of the plant, and the amount and quality of outside specialized assistance available are among the factors to be considered. Such factors as these will determine the personnel and work of the committees and the scope and quality of the materials. Chapters VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, and XI deal with various aspects of the problem of constructing materials.

How Can These Materials Be Given the Most Revealing Tryouts?

The factors mentioned above constitute, of course, the chief elements which should condition the trying out of the materials that have been produced. If one of the guiding principles for preparing curriculum materials in consonance with agreed-upon philosophy lends itself to experimentation under certain conditions, the superintendent may be able to set up some experiments which are citywide in their application, others for certain selected centers, and others for particular buildings and rooms. Since there is such great uncertainty regarding the effectiveness of many types of materials and methods of teaching, a principle which would urge an open-minded attitude toward sound experimentation would be most desirable. Chapter XII should be carefully read in considering the problem of trying out materials.

How Can the Work Be Continuously Evaluated?

Not so long ago, and in many places even yet, the chief and sometimes only method of evaluating the effectiveness of teaching and learning was by the application of formal objective tests, at the end of a certain period of time (a month, six weeks, or a semester). In the light of modern philosophy and psychology such a program of evaluation is far from adequate. Values highly important for pupil growth cannot always be determined by such a procedure. Moreover, the pupil himself is highly interested in his own growth; and, hence, a program of evaluation should be constructed which will give him an opportunity to gauge his own development from time to time. Chapter XIII contains numerous suggestions for conducting both formal and informal tests, and for arriving at a judgment of the values of some of the more or less intangible, yet desirable, outcomes.

Periods of Continuous Curriculum Revision

In the remainder of this chapter an attempt has been made to offer some suggestions whereby superintendents of schools and those assisting them can utilize the ideas contained in the other chapters of the yearbook in carrying forward a sound, continuous, curriculum revision program.

In a community setting up a program for the first time there are five periods of curriculum construction which should be followed in sequence.[4] In a community where a program has been under way for some time, work in each of the five phases would probably be going forward concomitantly. At least partial answers to the questions raised in the preceding sections would emerge thru the series of the five periods. Some of the questions would be answered with more definiteness and appropriateness in certain periods than in others.

[4] The five periods discussed in this section were indicated in the replies to a questionnaire received from thirty-five cities in which the curriculum programs are both active and forward-looking.

Period of Orientation

In many programs of curriculum revision the watchword seems to have been action. Superintendents and curriculum directors, and occasionally boards of education and teachers, seem in many instances to have been more interested in securing action than in determining what the right action might be. Tugwell expresses this idea when he says:

> Americans, as a whole, are always given credit for being bright and active. Observers frequently say, however, that our activity would count for more, that both qualitatively and quantitatively the results would be better, if we had a clearer idea of what it is all about. They make the admission of our qualities, but they have this reservation. There is something in our air which is the enemy of leisurely ways; but this stimulating force seems to extend infrequently to asking ourselves disturbing questions.[5]

Since a sound program of continuous curriculum revision is one of the most effective methods of training teachers in service with which we are acquainted, superintendents, course-of-study makers, and teachers everywhere should with the utmost seriousness attempt to attain a greater insight into the fundamental underlying problems involved before undertaking the actual work. The period of orientation, if made synonymous with education, should then not only precede but actually accompany every stage of the program.

There are a number of ways in which a continuous orientation of superintendents and their helpers in regard to a continuous reconstruction program can be carried forward.

Orientation by a discussion of issues—In attempting an answer to the six major questions involved in a continuous curriculum program, a number of issues arise regarding which there may be differences of opinion in many groups in a local community. An understanding regarding the answers to these questions, however, must be arrived at if a workable program is to be achieved.

In attempting to answer the question, "In what kind of world do we live, and what kind of world should we have?" such issues might arise as, "Under what form of government can people best live?" "How can social change be brought about?" "Shall the government own, regulate, or keep its hands completely off the distribution of products needed by most of the people?"

If the superintendent and the group working with him should subscribe to the principle that every promising proposal regarding such questions should be considered, they will probably study the best democratic forms

[5] Tugwell, Rexford G. *The Industrial Discipline and the Governmental Arts*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1933. p. 3.

of government such as those existing in the United States and England, the most typical examples of fascist government such as exist in Germany and Italy, and the outstanding communistic government as represented by Russia. The pros and cons regarding each type of government would be presented as fairly as the best spokesmen or writers could word them.

In discussing the issue, "How should social change be brought about?" every proposal from the most radical to the most reactionary would be surveyed. This survey would include suggestions for making changes within the present classes of society, and also for attaining a classless society. As far as method is concerned, the group might consider a scale ranging from force thru political action, economic action, education, and propaganda, to non-cooperation. The discussion might veer from a consideration of the methods used by Stalin, Hitler, and Mussolini, to those advocated by Tolstoy and Gandhi.

The Committee on the Collection and Construction of Socio-Economic Materials, of the Society for Curriculum Study, has suggested a method of orientation which would begin with the consideration of forty problems or issues of grave importance in America.[6] Five positions are stated on each of these problems. In stating these positions, the committee has intended to represent radical, reactionary, conservative, liberal, and progressive points of view. One of the forty sections from the printed checklist is as follows:

The Government's Relation to Distribution

..... a. The government should exercise only sufficient control over the systems of distribution to protect life and health of the consumer. .....

..... b. The government should control distribution of goods to the extent that the consumer is assured of quality and that all middlemen are removed from the process of distribution except those necessary in the handling and movement of goods. .....

..... c. There should be no government interference in any way with the operation of the systems of distribution. .....

..... d. All agencies for distribution should be owned and controlled by the government, for only in this way can a balance be obtained among needs, production, and distribution. .....

..... e. The government should control distribution of goods to the extent that the health and safety of the consumer are protected and, at the same time, the business man is protected from unfair competition so that he may realize a fair profit for the services he renders. .....

[6] Available in printed form: Bruner, Herbert B., and Linden, Arthur V. *A Tentative Check List for Determining the Positions Held by Students on Forty Crucial World Problems.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, June, 1935. 11 p.

Each member of the committee responsible for the revision of the social studies course of study and each teacher in the system concerned with the social studies might be requested to check on the left-hand side the position which most nearly coincides with the one he holds personally in regard to each of the forty problems. He is asked to check at the right the position which most nearly coincides with the one he feels the majority of the people in the community where he lives would like him to hold. It is believed that such a procedure would stimulate the interest of social studies teachers in basic issues, would assist them in defining the philosophy of each individual and of the group as a whole and, hence, would set up a more fundamental approach to curriculum-building.

One issue which will come up has to do with the organization of materials. The three general types of internal organization, discussed in Chapter IX, are as follows:

(1) Under separate subject courses in geography, history, civics, economics, sociology, and social psychology organized and administered independently.

(2) Under general social studies courses with materials from the different fields of the subject organized and administered in a definite relationship to the subject as a whole.

(3) In a correlated or integrated curriculum in which the social studies are organized and administered in a definite relationship to the entire curriculum with or without the preservation of their identity.

In a fourth type of organization, recognized by some curriculum specialists, the subject lines are entirely eliminated. They try to organize the curriculum around definite and crucial problems of significance in the lives of men, women, and children today, such as "How shall we produce adequate and comfortable housing for all our people?" and "How can we take optimum advantage of technological advances and still employ every able-bodied person?" Chapter X of this yearbook suggests how materials may be organized from this broader point of view.

Orientation by a study of various curriculum approaches—The work of orientation may be carried on by another method, one in which the committees consider the different approaches that have been suggested for curriculum construction.[7] The approaches usually employed are: (1) child experience, (2) creative values, (3) frontier thinkers, (4) socio-economic, (5) social values, (6) social statistics, (7) educational shortages, (8) emotionalized attitudes, (9) adult needs, (10) activity analysis, (11) objectives, (12) scientific, and (13) best present practise.

[7] See: Denver. *Approaches to Curriculum Making.* Special Appraisal Committees' Bulletin. Denver, Colo.: Public Schools, 1928. ¶ South Dakota. *Preliminary Reports on Approaches to and Theories Regarding Curriculum Construction, General Aims and Guiding Principles of Education.* Bulletin No. 1, 1930. Pierre, S. D.: State Department of Public Instruction.

Some of these approaches represent philosophy or points of view, while others are merely technics. Many, however, combine both philosophy and methods of procedure. It is apparent also that the approaches are not mutually exclusive. They represent, however, methods of attack sufficiently different to warrant careful study.

Out of the discussions of issues and approaches should grow the philosophy which should govern the construction and use of curriculum materials. Methods by which issues can be discussed and clarified have been set forward in a number of recent publications, such as the selected references at the end of this chapter. An outstanding example of the application of discussion methods is described in the Georgia Program for Improvement of Instruction in the Public Schools.[8]

The Period of Production

If we conceive of the continuous curriculum revision program as an educative process thru which the members of a school system are training themselves while in service, the principle is sound that every member of the system should engage in the work according to his needs, interests, and abilities. This principle should apply universally in the periods of orientation and production. Such a range of tasks is involved in producing materials for the entire system that the energies, insight, and knowledge of every individual can be profitably utilized. Probably this can be better realized when one considers the numbers of tasks involved in the following suggested outline for a course of study in the social studies:

(1) *The letter of transmittal written by the superintendent of schools or the course-of-study committee*—This letter should set up the purposes for which the course was constructed, point out its advantages to prospective users, and indicate the procedures employed in its construction.

(2) *A statement of the social and educational philosophy or point of view held by the makers of the course*—Here should be included statements of fundamental beliefs concerning present social and economic conditions, the ultimate aims of education, the functions of the school, the nature of learning, and the like. In some cases it may be desirable to include minority reports regarding the different items. In several of the more recent courses an appeal is made for the treatment of modern economic and social problems, many of which are listed in the courses themselves either in the introductory matter or at the beginning of each unit.

(3) *The program covered by the course*—This should consist of an overview of the social studies program for the entire system indicating relationships that should be held in mind for the purpose of articulating the materials included in the particular course with those offered in the entire program of the school. There should be included also a discussion of the type of organization employed for the various units. For instance, an organization often followed for units in social studies is:

[8] Burdette, H. S., chairman. *The Organization and Conduct of Teacher Study Groups.* Georgia Program for Improvement of Instruction in the Public Schools, Bulletin No. 1. Atlanta, Ga.: State Department of Education, 1935.

(a) A statement of the theme, or big idea, or the series of related ideas which directed the selection of content and activities.

(b) The desired outcomes of the unit which should include a statement of the generalizations at which the course-of-study writers hope the pupils will arrive.

(c) A brief overview of the unit which should be a succinct statement of the point of view which the course-of-study writers wish the teachers and pupils to keep in mind.

(d) A statement of several possible approaches to the unit. There should be included here suggestions for a planning period during which pupils and teachers may determine in general the course they will take in the work of the unit and the large activity with which they hope to culminate their efforts. There should be such a range of approaches that any teacher proposing to use the unit could find one appropriate for the conditions under which he works. The writers of the course of study would have to take into consideration both poorly-trained teachers and well-trained teachers, teachers working with bright children and those working with dull children, rooms containing fifty children and those containing twenty, schools containing ample library facilities and those with meager resources, and dozens of other similar conditions.

(e) Suggestive assimilative material including pertinent subjectmatter and a wide range of activities and teaching procedures. Great care should be taken to indicate here the possibilities of the local environment. Every community contains a wealth of valuable, accessible material. The course should list in each section many of the promising, out-of-school contacts.

(f) Suggested smaller teaching unit captions under which the assimilative material can be broken up naturally and used in an interesting way.

(g) Suggested culminating activities such as a pageant, a large book made cooperatively, or a play in the production of which working understandings of the chief concepts and informations presented in the unit were involved.

(h) Suggested means by which teachers and pupils may determine whether desirable outcomes are realized.

(i) Suggested teacher and pupil bibliographies appropriately placed in different sections of the material.

(j) Suggested means for revising materials in the light of tryouts. Some procedures for conducting the tryouts should be included.

(4) *Aims*—Here should be listed suggested aims for the program as a whole. Occasionally, it is desirable in the introductory material to include the aims for the individual grades. Many of the better courses of study repeat the grade aims at the beginning of the material for each grade.

(5) *Learning technics*—Here procedures for teaching and learning should be suggested which are in consonance with the purposes of the program as a whole and the nature of the materials. There should be included also suggestions for adapting activities and materials to the needs of particular groups and individuals.

(6) *Brief outline of contents by grades*—This outline of the suggested units for each grade would also include a statement of suggested time allotments. Care should be taken to state that the time allotment schedule is flexible and that each teacher should use his own judgment in determining how much time is needed for his particular group. Sometimes it is desirable to state the aims for each grade under this section.

(7) *Supplementary materials*—Here reference should be made to the desirability of using a wealth of supplementary materials such as text and reference books, encyclopedias, maps, phonograph records, radio programs, and graphics of all types including pictures, charts, and moving picture programs. Reference should be made here to the bibliographies for pupils and teachers which can be found elsewhere in the course. In addition attention should be called to the possibilities and desirability of making worthwhile contacts in the community with actual situations. It should be pointed out that in the appendix can be found lists and descriptions of such contacts as those provided by transportation and communication agencies, marketing and distributing centers, housing, manufacturing, and recreational facilities. Increasing stress should be put on this community contact by all teachers who are sincerely endeavoring to reach an understanding of social and economic problems. Altho most of the actual supplementary materials will be listed in the appendix, the desirability and availability of such materials should be stated in this section.

(8) *The administration of the program*—Suggestions should be included here regarding possible daily and weekly programs and the integration of the social studies program with other fields of subjectmatter. In the case of state courses, feasible tentative schedules should be suggested for urban, consolidated, and rural schools.

(9) *The body of the course of study*—The body of the course should contain the content worked out as much in detail as space will permit.

(10) *The appendix*—The material contained in the appendix will, of course, depend upon what has been included in the body of the course. Usually summaries of recent and worthwhile investigations, bibliographies for teachers and pupils, lists of supplementary materials, and the like, may be included with profit.

During the period of production the forces of the school system must be marshaled in such a way that all of the elements suggested in the outline above would be taken care of. Some teachers, of course, will be able to make large contributions by writing content materials or by setting up fundamental guiding principles, while the work of others might be confined to the collection of test materials or suggested physical equipment. It would be the task of the superintendent to make a careful inventory of his teaching staff and the size and importance of the tasks with which it is confronted in the production program and to make judicial decisions in selecting the proper personnel of the various committees. Such decisions should be made with the active assistance of the head of the social studies committee and other members of the curriculum cabinet. The inventory should be accompanied by well-thought-out suggestions for making adaptations of the materials in various situations. In order to make such adaptations it would be necessary of course that a careful study should be made of the pupils and their background.

Careful suggestions should be worked out, too, for the actual writing and editing of materials, since the mechanical form and also the language in which ideas of the committee are expressed are no small factors when the installation of the materials begins. While every teacher in the social

studies division should be involved in the production program, obviously only a few of those especially gifted can be charged with the final responsibility of actually putting the materials into written form.

Period of Installation and Tryout of Materials

Many a course of study produced thru months of hard work is now covered with dust and resting peacefully with last year's attendance reports in teachers' desks. This condition is due in the main, first, to the fact that in many instances the teachers who were to use the courses had not been involved in any way in their production, and, second, to the failure of superintendents to realize the tremendous importance of thoroly acquainting teachers with the aims, spirit, content, and proposed possible uses of the materials, in advance of the actual tryouts. While there are few figures available, observation over a period of years would warrant the statement that in a large majority of cases, courses of study when printed or mimeographed are literally thrown at the teachers with little explanation except that which appears in the preface or superintendent's letter of introduction. In some cases a single meeting at the time the courses are delivered has been thought sufficient. Up to the present time, the curriculum movement has been chiefly concerned with the setting up of aims and the development of printed and mimeographed materials. Little attention has been paid to the important problem of proper installation.

A partial solution of the problem might be reached if numerous suggestions for initial installation and permanent use were included in the printed or mimeographed courses. It is also highly important that supervisors and administrative officers be thoroly acquainted with the materials and their possible uses. Many meetings of the supervisors, administrators, and those who produced the materials will have to be called before the materials themselves are introduced in the classroom. Too often superintendents, because of their desire to have duties clearly defined, have the courses of study produced by one committee and then ask that these materials be turned over to supervisors and administrators for installation purposes without sufficient consultation between the two groups.

The wise superintendent will make ample provision for the trying out in a few typical situations of the materials proposed for the entire system. Able and sympathetic teachers and principals in charge of typical schools ranging from the poorest to the best as far as pupil personnel is concerned should be asked to experiment with the course-of-study materials before they are used on a citywide basis. Such a procedure would forestall many an error which might prove to be serious if not detected in a limited situation. Curriculum schools should be set up also for the trying out of unusual phases of a proposed program. An example of such curriculum schools can

be found in Houston, Texas, where for several years the superintendent has been conducting a number of schools where unusual procedures in this field have been the object of experimentation. These schools are described by Oberholtzer,[9] as follows:

CLASSIFICATION OF CURRICULUM SCHOOLS

The curriculum schools are classified tentatively by means of the major emphasis to be given the curriculum work of each school, insofar as the subjectmatter or content may be spoken of as being emphasized in relation to the general or specific objectives of the curriculum.

The plan given here is merely the tentative setup for these schools in order that there might be a starting point to begin differentiation of work. All plans and procedures are subject to change as the work progresses and the way more definitely charted. The setup is as follows:

School A: Language Arts and Related Activities

Theme: A study of communication and effective expression by means of the spoken and written word.

Emphasis: Enrichment and skill in use of language developed thru child activities.

Content: Chosen from all fields, especially social science and natural science.

Scope: (1) Includes reading, literature, spelling, penmanship, manuscript writing.

(2) Includes both written and spoken expression.

Oral: a. Extemporaneous speaking
b. Dramatics
c. Oral composition
d. Debate
e. Such organized procedures for student participation as will best promote the work.

Written: All forms of written expression applicable.

(3) Includes all the regular activities of the regular school necessary for the outcomes of the curriculum.

School B: Natural Sciences

Theme: A study of how best to live in harmony with nature's laws and appreciate and enjoy fully the good life.

Emphasis: Nature and nurture as influencing life esthetically.

Content: Outdoor life—nature and nurture and their influence
Home life—nature and nurture and their influence
Community life—nature and nurture and their influence.

Scope: (1) Includes nature study and elementary science, health and living, physical care of body, rhythmics applied, safety as related to personal habits, camping, sports, etc.

(2) All regular school outcomes.

School C: Social Sciences

Theme: Living together, a study of social relationship.

Emphasis: Group life and organized social movements.

[9] A further discussion of experimental work in Houston may be found in: Oberholtzer, E. E. *An Experiment in Integrative Curriculum Revision.* Doctor's thesis, Teachers College, Columbia University, to be published early in 1936.

Content: Social studies.
Scope: (1) Includes the social studies for enrichment of living.
(2) Group activities for school and life.
(3) All regular school outcomes.

School D: Mathematics

Theme: Living together, a study of social relationship.
Emphasis: Practical application, enrichment in use, and economy in learning.
Content: Arithmetic values, elements of physical science, application in material production.
Scope: (1) Includes arithmetic, some phases of industrial arts and a study of contemporary life in production.
(2) Includes safety education and thrift education in conservation of life and property.
(3) Includes regular outcomes of school.

School E: Fine Arts

Theme: A study of the fine arts or the relationship of beauty to eternal truth.
Emphasis: Appreciation and creativeness in expression thru fine arts.
Content: Music, art, literature, handcraft experiences.
Scope: (1) Includes decoration and design, modeling, rhythmics, creative activities.
(2) Regular outcomes of school.

School F: Child Laboratory School

Theme: A study of the integrating factors in education most useful to the full development of child life.
Emphasis: Development thru child experiences with creative activities, with centers of interest, flexibility, and freedom, child participation and child initiative being cultivated.
Scope: (1) Includes the range of adult life activities that are usable and desirable.
(2) Includes all subjects.
(3) Includes all regular outcomes of school.

School G: Language Adjustment School

Theme: A study of the problems involved in the education of foreign-language-speaking students.
Emphasis: Attempt to prevent the mental retardation probably caused by the removal of the tool of thought (native language). Continuous study with control group of ways of individual teaching that will preserve the individual's power of expression without making him a detriment to society.
Content: Language work—all materials of instruction.
Scope: (1) Includes personal habits and civic attitudes.
(2) Includes all subjectmatter generally taught.
(3) Includes all regular outcomes of school.[10]

Other examples of experimentation can be found in the high schools of Fort Worth, Texas. In one of the high schools a social studies teacher,

[10] Houston Board of Education. *Curriculum Revision and Development (1924-1930).* Houston, Texas: the Board, 1931. p. 64-66.

a science teacher, and an English teacher are working jointly with three classes of pupils on the problem of marketing. They have limited themselves to the marketing problems connected with oil, cattle, vegetables, and cotton. In the experiment the pupils will attempt to trace these products thru the entire production-distribution-consumption cycle. The high-school principal is cooperating in allowing pupils and teachers the full morning every day for the work. The social studies teacher sometimes has the full group of seventy to ninety pupils for a period of a week. During this time he may be preparing them for a visit to the oil, cotton, or vegetable fields, or the cattle ranches. The science teacher may then work with the group for several days explaining technological factors involved in the production of oil, or soil, climate, and food factors involved in the production of cotton, vegetables, or cattle. The English teacher is in constant demand in assisting the pupils in outlining the points they wish to observe on their trips or those they wish to report or write up after the trips have been taken. All three teachers cooperate in assisting pupils to make optimum use of all community contacts as well as library materials.

In another situation, one high-school teacher is attempting to handle the problem of marketing, including all the social studies and English phases. When asked how she could expect to be a specialist in both fields, she replied, "Of course I am not, but I suppose that if we expect high-school pupils to master certain elements in either of the fields it is not too much to ask me to attempt to work with them."

A third scheme consists of an arrangement under which the same section of tenth-grade pupils work with a social studies teacher on some "modern problems" area, such as marketing, and then go to their English teacher for assistance on the English phases of the problem.

These are only samples of the types of experimentation with curriculum materials which are being attempted in many communities thruout the country. These types of experimentation constitute some of the most promising features of the curriculum movement and should be encouraged by superintendents everywhere.

The Period of Evaluation

The period of evaluation, which formerly was thought of as coming at the end of an activity or a period of time, such as a semester, should really begin before the first word of a course of study is written and should not end until each pupil has performed his last act in connection with the area under consideration. There should be a constant and continuous evaluation of the aims, of the selection of subjectmatter, of the proposed activities, of the classroom tryouts, of the attitudes and procedures of teachers, and of the effects on the behavior of pupils. In the classroom

situation more emphasis should be placed upon self-evaluation by teachers and pupils—the teacher appraising the growth in his ability to stimulate and guide the pupil; the pupil, in his growth and ability in solving problems, in using his initiative, and in enjoying rich experiences of real worth.

With such a definition of evaluation, it is probably a misnomer to say that there is a period of evaluation in a program of continuous curriculum revision. It would be more fitting to say that the superintendent and all the members of the school system should be constantly on the alert for growth and progress. Numerous suggestions for evaluation appear in Chapter XIII of this yearbook.

The Period of Revision

After a thoro tryout and evaluation of materials the time will come, periodically, for a revision of the printed materials that are sent out to all the social studies teachers in the school system. This revision, of course, is a more or less formal procedure, since the revision that really counts is that which occurs in the teaching and learning procedures themselves. No doubt there is a large advantage in having the promising experiences of all the group brought together in printed or mimeographed form for the benefit of the entire system.

Other Problems

Much has been written on various phases of curriculum revision programs. The writers of these materials have been concerned chiefly, however, with collecting and interpreting results of existing curriculum revision programs. In this chapter an attempt has been made to lay out the large tasks involved, to show their relationships, and to stress what was thought to be of chief importance. Of necessity, the discussion of a number of problems has been omitted, such as:

How can the program be financed?

How can the support of the public be secured and held?

What kind and amount of assistance can and should be secured thru outside agencies and individuals, for example, college courses, curriculum consultants, labor unions, and chambers of commerce?

How shall the committees for revision of the social studies be appointed?

What are the duties of the different members of the committees?

What is the relationship of the social studies committees to other committees of the curriculum revision program of the school system?

The selected references given next will refer the reader to material treating most of these topics.

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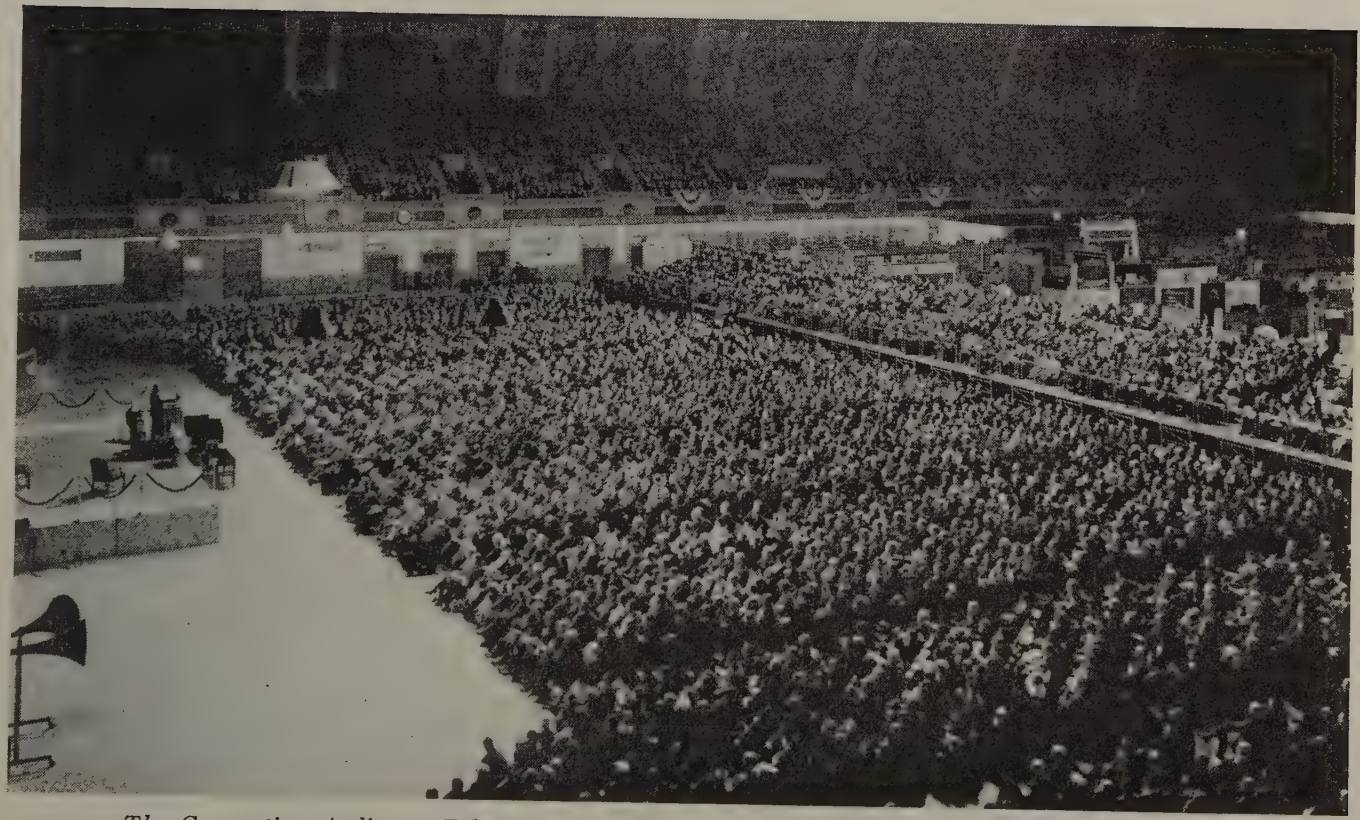

The Convention Audience, February 25, 1935, in the Arena of the Atlantic City Auditorium

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

St. Louis Meeting, 1936

To the President, Executive Committee, and Members of the Department of Superintendence:

In accordance with the provisions of the constitution adopted at the Chicago convention in 1922, the annual report of the activities of the Department of Superintendence is presented herewith. It covers the period from January 1, 1935, to December 31, 1935.

The Atlantic City Convention—A more hopeful attitude was manifest at Atlantic City than had characterized any convention since the depression began. Private discussion and public utterances alike turned from past misfortune to future progress. President E. E. Oberholtzer had prepared a program of rare excellence which emphasized educational recovery and improvement.

The programs for the general sessions, beginning with the vesper address of President G. Bromley Oxnam and ending with Dean William F. Russell's masterly discussion of liberty and equality, presented a timely panorama of national as well as of school affairs. A notable innovation was made when the 1935 Yearbook on *Social Change and Education* was presented by means of a jury-panel discussion in which all members of the Yearbook Commission participated under the leadership of the United States Commissioner of Education, John W. Studebaker.

Among those not members of the profession who addressed the convention were Secretary of Agriculture Henry A. Wallace; newspaper man, Heywood Broun; historian, Charles A. Beard; economist, Stuart Chase; and Chairman Jesse H. Jones of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation.

On Sunday evening the musical fairy tale, entitled "Hansel and Gretel," was presented by a chorus of 375 voices from the Atlantic City schools, assisted by artists from the Cosmopolitan, Chicago, and San Carlos Opera Companies, under the direction of Osbourne McConathy. The concert on Wednesday evening by the Westminster Choir with John Finley Williamson as conductor will be long and pleasurably remembered by those who heard it. Every convention need had been foreseen by Superintendent A. S. Chenoweth of Atlantic City and his competent committees.

The Executive Committee—Article IV of the constitution provides that the Executive Committee shall consist of seven members. The president and the first and second vicepresidents are members ex officio and are chosen annually. Four members, chosen by election, hold office for four years. Four meetings of the Executive Committee were held during 1935,

the first being at the Dennis Hotel, Atlantic City, February 24. Members present were: E. E. Oberholtzer, Houston, Texas, president; Paul C. Stetson, Indianapolis, Indiana, first vicepresident; A. J. Stoddard, Providence, Rhode Island, second vicepresident; Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Carroll R. Reed, Minneapolis, Minnesota; and George C. Bush, South Pasadena, California.

Communications were received from several firms and organizations requesting the privilege of distributing advertising material in and about the convention and meeting halls. On motion of Mr. Graham, seconded by Mr. Reed, it was voted to grant no such requests.

Reports from the following committee chairmen were presented and discussed: Resolutions, by R. W. Bardwell; 1937 Yearbook, by Frank G. Pickell; Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, by John K. Norton; and Committee on a Longer Planned Program, by Paul C. Stetson.

On motion of Mr. Reed, the president and executive secretary were authorized to pay all bills of the Department of Superintendence up to the close of the Atlantic City convention, issuing checks against the special account of the Department in the usual manner.

On motion of Mr. Stoddard, appreciation was expressed to Superintendent Paul C. Stetson, the retiring member of the Executive Committee, for his outstanding service to the Department of Superintendence.

On motion, Mr. Oberholtzer and Mr. Reed were appointed as a committee with power to act to attend a meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association, to be called for the purpose of answering officially the request of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education to be relieved of its responsibilities at an early date.

The Executive Committee met again at the Dennis Hotel, Thursday afternoon, February 28. Those present were: A. J. Stoddard, Providence, Rhode Island, president; E. E. Oberholtzer, Houston, Texas, first vicepresident; A. L. Threlkeld, Denver, Colorado, second vicepresident; Carroll R. Reed, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Frank G. Pickell, Montclair, New Jersey; and Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Oral invitations for the 1936 convention were presented as follows: Milwaukee, Wisconsin—by Superintendent Milton C. Potter and by Earl L. Ferguson, manager, Convention Bureau, Milwaukee Association of Commerce; Cincinnati, Ohio—by Mark Egan, vicechairman, Cincinnati Convention Committee, and by S. D. Shankland, proxy for Paul C. Stetson, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Indiana; Kansas City, Missouri—by Superintendent F. L. Schlagle of Kansas City, Kansas, and by H. E. Boning, Jr., manager, Convention and Visitors Bureau, Chamber of Commerce, Kansas City, Missouri; Chicago, Illinois—by William J. Hennessy, manager, Bureau of Conventions, Chicago Association of Commerce (Mr.

Hennessy spoke also as proxy for Superintendent William J. Bogan); Houston, Texas—by H. L. Mills, business manager, Houston Independent School District, by Oscar Holcombe, mayor of Houston, by L. A. Woods, state superintendent of education for Texas, by Charles N. Shaver, president, Texas State Teachers Association, and by A. D. Simpson, president, National Bank of Commerce of Houston; St. Louis, Missouri—by Superintendent Henry J. Gerling.

It was voted to make no selection of the 1936 convention meeting place until the spring meeting of the Executive Committee. The president was authorized to appoint members of the Executive Committee and of the Headquarters Staff to investigate the convention facilities of the cities extending invitations.

A telegram was presented from Charles S. Meek in which he resigned his position as a member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence. On motion, Superintendent Frank G. Pickell of Montclair, New Jersey, was appointed for the unexpired term ending February 1937.

The executive secretary reported that the annual election had been held according to the constitution and bylaws and that the tellers had certified to the election of the following officers: A. J. Stoddard, superintendent of schools, Providence, Rhode Island, president; A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado, second vicepresident; Ben G. Graham, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, member of the Executive Committee for four years.

Following adjournment the members of the Executive Committee and their guests were entertained at dinner by Mr. and Mrs. A. C. Poffenberger of the Dennis Hotel.

The annual meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, Saturday, May 4. Members present were: A. J. Stoddard, Providence, Rhode Island, president; E. E. Oberholtzer, Houston, Texas, first vicepresident; A. L. Threlkeld, Denver, Colorado, second vicepresident; Carroll R. Reed, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Frank G. Pickell, Montclair, New Jersey; George C. Bush, South Pasadena, California; and Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Others in attendance were H. A. Allan, business manager of the National Education Association, and S. D. Shankland, executive secretary of the Department of Superintendence.

On motion of Mr. Graham, it was voted to hold a breakfast in honor of President A. J. Stoddard, Wednesday morning, July 3, 1935, during the summer meeting of the National Education Association at Denver, Colorado. The executive secretary was directed to make the necessary business arrangements. Superintendent Carroll R. Reed was named as toastmaster, with power to prepare the program.

The president was authorized to appoint a committee to take such steps

as seem practical to secure approval of Henry Barnard for a place in the Hall of Fame. This committee is directed to assume no financial responsibility in behalf of the Department of Superintendence.

Letters were presented and read from several educational groups and organizations asking that their programs be printed in the *Official Program* of the winter meeting. On motion, the executive secretary was directed to write to them that the Executive Committee did not feel warranted, at this time, in adding to the number of allied groups.

On motion of Mr. Threlkeld, seconded by Mr. Reed, it was voted that the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence, representing the attitude of school administrators towards teachers' salaries, recommends the speedy restoration of normal salary schedules in school systems; and that furthermore, in line with this attitude, the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence urges the Board of Directors and the Executive Committee of the National Education Association to make full restoration, at as early a date as possible, of all salary reductions now in effect for the staff of the National Education Association.

The annual report of the executive secretary was submitted in writing. It included a detailed statement of receipts and expenditures for several years past together with a tentative budget for the year 1935. On motion of Mr. Bush, expenditures for the current year were authorized to the amount of $46,900.

On motion of Mr. Bush, it was voted to elect Herbert S. Weet, former superintendent of schools, Rochester, New York, and for four years a member of the Executive Committee, as an honorary member for life in the Department of Superintendence. The president was authorized to notify Dr. Weet and to make appropriate plans for the presentation of his life membership certificate at the 1936 convention.

Reports of investigations of convention facilities in various cities were presented by Mr. Stoddard and others. A ballot was ordered and St. Louis received a majority of the votes cast.

The following resolution, adopted by the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education at a meeting in Washington, D. C., on April 28, 1935, was presented and read to the meeting:

> That the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education recommend to the Executive Committee of the National Education Association and the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence that the Joint Commission terminate its existence at the Denver meeting of the National Education Association.
>
> And further, that the Joint Commission recommend to the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence the establishment of a national planning board for public education to continue such activities of the Joint Commission as they deem best, to encourage cooperation between national educational groups, and otherwise to promote public education in the United States.

On motion of Mr. Reed, the recommendation that the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education make its final report and terminate its existence at the Denver meeting was approved.

On motion of Mr. Bush, the officers of the Department of Superintendence were authorized to enter into negotiations with the National Education Association looking toward a long-time national planning board for public education as outlined in the resolution of the Joint Commission.

Sometime ago there was appointed, under the auspices of the federal Office of Education, a Committee on Economic Education, of which Superintendent A. J. Stoddard, Providence, Rhode Island, was chairman. This Committee is no longer officially connected with the federal Office of Education, but is carrying forward its work independently. President Stoddard recommended that this Committee on Economic Education be adopted as one of the regular committees of the Department of Superintendence, and on motion of Mr. Oberholtzer, the recommendation was approved.

The Executive Committee met again in the Cosmopolitan Hotel, Denver, Colorado, Tuesday evening, July 2. Those present were: A. J. Stoddard, Providence, Rhode Island, president; E. E. Oberholtzer, Houston, Texas, first vicepresident; Carroll R. Reed, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Frank G. Pickell, Montclair, New Jersey; George C. Bush, South Pasadena, California; and Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Reports were received from Superintendent Carroll R. Reed on plans for the breakfast in honor of President A. J. Stoddard; from Business Manager H. A. Allan on exhibit arrangements for the St. Louis convention; from Chairman Frank G. Pickell concerning the 1937 Yearbook; and from Chairman E. E. Oberholtzer of the 1938 Yearbook Commission.

President Stoddard and Secretary Shankland reported the results of negotiations looking toward the organization of a long-time educational planning board. They presented in writing a proposal outlining a plan of organization for such a group to be known as the Educational Policies Commission. After detailed discussion the proposal was unanimously approved. It was stated that like action had already been taken by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association. At a joint meeting of the Executive Committees of the Department of Superintendence and of the National Education Association held the next evening at the Brown Palace Hotel, final steps were taken authorizing the organization of the Educational Policies Commission. The December 1935 issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association* contains a statement concerning the organization and purposes of the Educational Policies Commission.

The Finances—For five years, from 1930 thru 1934, there was a falling off in the revenues of the Department. The cash receipts for 1930 were

$56,480.87; for 1932 the amount was $47,361.78; and for 1934, only $38,475.14. In 1935 the receipts went up to $46,675.66.

The Department closed the year 1935 with a balance in the regular fund of $15,187.27. The balance one year ago was $14,042.15, and two years ago it was $17,021.38. The principal source of revenue is the annual membership fee of five dollars. The Department enrolled 1,263 members in 1922; 3,114 in 1927; 4,013 in 1931; 3,110 in 1933; and 3,375 in 1935. The membership distribution by states for the last six years is shown in Table 1.

By agreement with the National Education Association, the net income from the exhibits at the winter meeting is divided equally between the Department and the parent Association, each organization thus deriving funds for convention expenses. The active work of organizing and managing the exhibits is done by the Business Division of the National Education Association. The amounts which the Department has derived from this source during recent years are as follows:

1925—Cincinnati	$8,696.06
1926—Washington	6,830.68
1927—Dallas	8,524.64
1928—Boston	8,883.87
1929—Cleveland	14,687.26
1930—Atlantic City	17,485.71
1931—Detroit	16,502.51
1932—Washington	12,903.39
1933—Minneapolis	9,061.75
1934—Cleveland	8,288.50
1935—Atlantic City	13,511.03

The statement of receipts and expenditures given below covers the calendar year 1935. It includes expenses of the Atlantic City convention, some preliminary charges for the St. Louis convention, and all items of general expense. All bills were paid at the end of the year. A detailed statement regarding the Permanent Educational Research Fund is given elsewhere in this report.

Regular Receipts during Calendar Year 1935

Annual dues, 2,831 members, 1935	$14,155.00	
Annual dues, 311 members, 1936	1,555.00	
Six-year member	25.00	
Interest—Permanent Research Fund	862.21	
Yearbooks sold	7,844.99	
Atlantic City exhibit	13,511.03	
Educational Research Service	8,714.56	
Interest received	7.87	
Total receipts		$46,675.66
Balance, January 1, 1935		14,042.15
Grand total		**$60,717.81**

Regular Expenditures during Calendar Year 1935

Atlantic City Convention:		
Registration	$599.02	
Programs	609.17	
Badges	42.00	
Stenotype report	219.87	
President's expense	247.56	
Secretary's expense	125.02	
Forum and study groups	164.02	
Music—incidental expenses	660.00	
Railroad certificates	117.06	
Expense for speakers	1,121.22	
Publicity	142.22	
Total Atlantic City Convention		$4,047.16
General Expense:		
Salary, Executive Secretary	$8,400.00	
Printing 9M Thirteenth Yearbooks	4,605.83	
Printing 5M Atlantic City Official Reports	1,693.34	
Printing Research Bulletins, 4 issues	646.76	
Other printing	1,338.49	
Postage, express, and stationery	4,692.21	
Mimeographing, multigraphing, typing, etc.	2,312.69	
Telephone and telegraph	237.77	
President's expense	496.25	
Secretary's expense	808.64	
Executive Committee expense	950.09	
Committee on Longer Planned Program	377.81	
1936 Yearbook Commission expense	1,965.27	
1937 Yearbook Commission expense	1,569.71	
Audit Committee expense	84.90	
Joint Emergency Commission	1,487.33	
Committee on Radio	56.37	
Worthless checks	9.66	
Educational Research Service, salaries	6,595.88	
Educational Research Service, miscellaneous	1,883.38	
Retirement fund	820.00	
Supplies and equipment	82.94	
Surety bonds	12.50	
St. Louis convention, advance expense	255.56	
American Council on Education	100.00	
Total general expense		$41,483.38
Total expense for the year		$45,530.54
Balance, December 31, 1935		15,187.27
Grand total		**$60,717.81**

The Audit Committee—The books and accounts of the Department of Superintendence are audited twice each year. In June, certified public accountants make a complete examination of the finances of the National Education Association including all of its departments. The constitution of the Department of Superintendence also requires that a committee of three members of the Department shall audit the accounts at the close of each fiscal year. The constitution of the Department further provides that its fiscal year shall correspond with the calendar year. The report of the Audit Committee for the year ended December 31, 1935, will be printed in full in the *Official Report* of the St. Louis convention. The members of the committee are: Louis Nusbaum, associate superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Jesse H. Binford, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Virginia; and Worcester Warren, superintendent of schools, Bridgeport, Connecticut.

Permanent Educational Research Fund—In April 1927 the Commission on the Curriculum recommended the appointment of a Committee on Financing Educational Research. The Boston convention in 1928 took favorable action on the proposal and directed the Committee to make plans for creating a fund that should yield an annual income sufficient to enable the Department to carry on important studies in education on a nation-wide basis.

A year later the Committee, under the chairmanship of Randall J. Condon, undertook a vigorous campaign to secure contributions for the Permanent Educational Research Fund. Unfortunately, the financial depression seriously hampered the undertaking, making it necessary to postpone the general campaign to secure additional funds. Since then, efforts in favorable localities have been continued thru the headquarters office. Additions to the principal during 1935 amounted to $1,612.35. The members of the Committee for the current year are: Leon N. Neulen, *chairman,* E. B. Cauthorn, Lamont F. Hodge, Wiley G. Brooks, and H. L. Donovan.

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association reports assets in the investment account to the credit of the Permanent Educational Research Fund on December 31, 1935, as follows:

	Par Value	*Book Value*
U. S. Treasury 3¼% Due 1944-46	$200.00	$200.00
South Carolina Highway Certificate of Indebtedness 4¾% Due 12-1-46	2,000.00	2,077.28
U. S. Treasury 2⅞% Due 3-15-55	150.00	168.63
Newport News City Street Improvement and Sewage Construction Bonds 5½% Due 12-1-50	11,000.00	11,285.00
Portsmouth, Virginia, Waterworks Bonds 5% Due 12-1-48	3,000.00	3,160.51
Cash on hand		2,985.92
Total		$19,877.34

The following statement shows the assets at the beginning of the year together with the cash receipts during 1935 of the Permanent Educational Research Fund:

Life Memberships—Cash payments	$500.00
Dallas, Texas, Schools by E. B. Cauthorn, assistant superintendent:	
Ascher Silberstein School by Frances Jewell, principal	10.00
Lida Hooe School by G. H. Reagan, principal	10.00
T. G. Terry School by Margaret Grady, principal	10.00
San Jacinto School by E. G. Grafton, principal	10.00
Stephen F. Austin School by E. G. Grafton, principal	10.00
Sam Houston School by J. C. Oehler, principal	20.00
Richard Lagow School by R. C. T. Jacobs, principal	10.00
Stephen J. Hay School by Nelle McCorkle, principal	10.00
Forest Avenue School by Wylie A. Parker, principal	20.00
Dallas Technical High School by Walter J. E. Schiebel, principal	20.00
Trinity Heights School by Mrs. Fannie Baskett, principal	10.00
Woodrow Wilson High School by G. L. Ashburn, principal	20.00
Cumberland School by W. O. Pipes, principal	10.00
North Dallas High School by E. B. Comstock, principal	20.00
Sunset High School by W. T. White, principal	20.00
James Stephen Hogg School by J. F. Kelly, principal	20.00
William B. Travis School by M. H. Morris, principal	10.00
Oak Cliff High School by Howard A. Allen, acting principal	20.00
Maple Lawn School by Mrs. A. E. Stuart, supervising principal	10.00
Obadiah Knight School by Mrs. A. E. Stuart, supervising principal	10.00
William Lipscomb School by Mrs. Virginia C. Lipscomb, principal	10.00
School No. 16, Yonkers, N. Y.	175.00
E. E. Lewis	95.46
Leonia, N. J., Teachers Club by Nelson C. Smith	25.00
Council of School and Home Associations, Mount Vernon, N. Y., by William H. Holmes	50.00
Board of Education, Port Washington, N. Y., by Paul D. Schreiber	50.00
Board of Education, Hackensack, N. J., by John A. Wilcox	50.00
Teachers of Hillside and Spaulding Schools, Montclair, N. J., by Frank G. Pickell	95.04
Hornell, N. Y., Teachers Association	25.00
Teachers of New Orleans, La., by Nicholas Bauer	206.85
Kappa Phi Kappa by Arthur D. Wright	50.00
Cash on hand January 1, 1935	1,322.51
Bonds on hand January 1, 1935	17,014.56
	$19,949.42
Deduct accrued interest on Portsmouth, Va., Waterworks Bonds	72.08
Assets as of December 31, 1935	$19,877.34

Publications—The *Official Report* of addresses and proceedings of the Atlantic City convention was published and delivered to members soon after the meeting adjourned. It was a volume of 320 pages. Five issues of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association were mailed

TABLE 1.—MEMBERSHIP OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE BY STATES, 1930-1935

State	1930 Atlantic City	1931 Detroit	1932 Washington	1933 Minneapolis	1934 Cleveland	1935 Atlantic City
Alabama	58	49	45	28	27	32
Arizona	27	25	23	21	19	18
Arkansas	45	39	25	19	20	23
California	116	124	107	98	95	100
Colorado	40	43	37	32	36	36
Connecticut	92	96	97	66	76	77
Delaware	19	21	21	14	20	22
District of Columbia	39	36	54	37	42	47
Florida	25	22	20	18	17	18
Georgia	50	44	42	24	38	41
Idaho	10	10	11	6	6	7
Illinois	238	255	190	196	209	226
Indiana	100	115	103	77	109	88
Iowa	86	101	76	95	83	73
Kansas	68	72	62	56	57	55
Kentucky	59	56	45	29	44	47
Louisiana	29	30	26	23	22	18
Maine	35	34	28	16	26	22
Maryland	65	55	67	45	50	54
Massachusetts	205	188	167	124	151	162
Michigan	201	276	154	109	132	118
Minnesota	81	79	72	282	92	77
Mississippi	39	30	25	17	30	30
Missouri	97	101	91	84	91	87
Montana	9	13	12	12	18	13
Nebraska	48	50	49	45	39	40
Nevada	5	5	5	2	2	3
New Hampshire	37	30	27	21	25	32
New Jersey	277	267	271	179	193	248
New Mexico	18	17	17	9	9	9
New York	364	367	394	307	364	394
North Carolina	64	45	59	36	42	29
North Dakota	14	16	21	21	15	11
Ohio	237	247	207	156	221	168
Oklahoma	71	72	57	42	46	42
Oregon	20	22	18	14	11	13
Pennsylvania	360	306	337	243	290	308
Rhode Island	41	41	39	32	38	48
South Carolina	22	19	20	13	18	20
South Dakota	27	26	15	23	19	18
Tennessee	44	41	42	24	31	43
Texas	176	209	175	143	187	201
Utah	30	24	15	14	13	13
Vermont	28	21	23	21	20	21
Virginia	53	47	56	38	42	49
Washington	20	21	15	15	13	13
West Virginia	52	48	49	31	28	35
Wisconsin	114	125	111	118	96	94
Wyoming	17	12	12	10	11	10
Alaska	1	.....	1	1	1	1
Canada	2	5	7	6	10	6
Canal Zone	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....
China	1	.....	1	2	1	1
Cook Islands	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
France	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Haiti	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hawaii	4	3	4	3	3	3
Iraq	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Mexico	1	1	1	.....	.....	1
Newfoundland	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Philippine Islands	9	4	5	5	3	3
Puerto Rico	18	7	6	8	8	6
Total	4,011	4,013	3,659	3,110	3,310	3,375

NOTE: The count includes 3,189 members who paid dues for the year 1935, 4 honorary members, 176 life or twenty-five year members, and 6 six-year members.

to members of the Department of Superintendence during the year. The titles of these bulletins were: "The Nation's School Building Needs"; "Salaries of School Employees, 1934-35"; "Creating Social Intelligence"; "The Teacher's Economic Position"; and "Better Reading Instruction."

From time to time certain other publications are mailed to members. In 1935 such items included the "Classified List of Educational Periodicals"; "Radio Calendar"; and a booklet entitled "Leadership in Instruction."

For several years the resolutions and convention programs of the Department indicated intense interest in social problems. Current reports in newspapers and periodicals offered little specific suggestion for the busy executive whose energies were absorbed by the demands of his school system. In the hope of clarifying the situation the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence authorized the publication of two yearbooks in this field.

The first of these volumes entitled *Social Change and Education* was distributed to members at the time of the Atlantic City convention. In signed chapters, the members of the Commission defended widely different interpretations of social data. This clear-cut presentation of divergent views was intended to stimulate frank discussion of the issues involved, since the same differences of opinion exist among the members of the Department as are found among social scientists, government leaders, and citizens generally. Reports from the field indicate that this objective was achieved. In the preparation of this yearbook it was borne in mind that it was to be followed a year later by a book on the social studies curriculum.

The annual yearbooks are the principal publications of the Department of Superintendence. A measure of their usefulness may be obtained by perusal of the facts regarding their publication and sales as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.—YEARBOOKS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Year	Title	Number copies printed	Cash sales of all yearbooks for the year
1923	Status of the Superintendent	3,200	$142.45
1924	The Elementary School Curriculum	4,500	1,364.13
1925	Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum	11,000	4,707.65
1926	The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum	12,000	8,467.94
1927	The Junior High School Curriculum	11,000	8,844.57
1928	The Development of the High School Curriculum	10,000	9,830.58
1929	The Articulation of the Units of American Education	11,000	7,842.51
1929	Reprint of 1926 Yearbook	4,000	.....
1930	The Superintendent Surveys Supervision	11,348	10,603.43
1931	Five Unifying Factors in American Education	11,572	8,375.87
1932	Character Education	12,000	10,053.94
1933	Educational Leadership	8,000	4,922.85
1934	Critical Problems in School Administration	7,000	5,021.13
1935	Social Change and Education	9,000	7,844.99

1936 Yearbook—This yearbook was prepared as the result of a resolution adopted by the Washington convention of the Department of Superintendence in 1932, which directed the appointment of a commission to report on adjustments in the social studies curriculum made necessary by recent social and economic changes. The members of this Commission have exercised unusual care in the preparation of their manuscripts. Several meetings of the entire Commission have been held at which all chapters were carefully reviewed. President Paul C. Stetson appointed the five original members of the Commission. Additional appointments were made later by President E. E. Oberholtzer. The complete list of members is printed on page 4 of this volume.

The 1937 Yearbook—One lesson from the depression years is that public education needs to make its purposes and its procedures better known. In too many communities between 1929 and 1933 ruthless hands were laid upon the schools and only desperate efforts aroused the public against unnecessary impairment. We should not be found unprepared again. In these times of rapid change it is important to examine the evidence and suggest constructive next steps. With this end in view the Executive Committee has authorized a commission to study and to report on the relation of education to the public welfare.

Educators are interested in having fairly complete answers to questions such as these: What has been the unique contribution of education to American democracy? What role should education play in our social progress? How can education remain close to the hopes and the problems of our American people? In the general field suggested by such questions the 1937 Yearbook Commission will work. At its meeting in October 1935, the Commission outlined the proposed study and made assignments. Manuscripts are now being prepared for consideration at a meeting to be held in April 1936. The personnel of the Commission is as follows: Superintendent Frank G. Pickell, Montclair, New Jersey, *chairman;* Superintendent Frederick H. Bair, Shaker Heights, Ohio; Harry Elmer Barnes, New York City; Charles A. Bowers, secretary, Nebraska State Teachers Association; Hollis L. Caswell, George Peabody College for Teachers; Willard S. Elsbree, Teachers College, Columbia University; John Guy Fowlkes, University of Wisconsin; Superintendent H. Claude Hardy, White Plains, New York; Clyde R. Miller, Teachers College, Columbia University; Arthur B. Moehlman, University of Michigan; and Superintendent J. A. True, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

1938 Yearbook—At its Denver meeting the Executive Committee voted to devote the 1938 Yearbook to the study of youth problems. Superintend-

ent E. E. Oberholtzer of Houston, Texas, was named as chairman. The Commission to carry out the study is now in process of organization.

Committee on Lay Relations—The Boston convention, in 1928, authorized the appointment of a standing committee of five members on the relation of the Department of Superintendence to other organizations. Members are appointed for a term of five years, one vacancy occurring each year. At present the committee consists of Superintendent Nicholas Bauer, New Orleans, Louisiana, *chairman;* Superintendent Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio; Superintendent Merle J. Abbett, Fort Wayne, Indiana; Superintendent Louis P. Bénezét, Manchester, New Hampshire; and Superintendent S. M. Stouffer, Wilmington, Delaware.

The Educational Research Service—The number of subscribers to the Educational Research Service has increased from 346 to 359 during the past year. This clearing-house of research on school administration which the Department of Superintendence and the Research Division of the National Education Association maintain cooperatively, is supported on a subscription basis, with an annual fee of $25. The subscribers include 229 city school systems, 17 state departments of education, 82 colleges, universities, and normal schools, and 31 other institutions. Table 3 gives the facts by years as to number of subscribers and receipts from subscriptions.

TABLE 3.—EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE SUBSCRIBERS AND INCOME FROM SUBSCRIPTIONS

Year	Number of subscribers	Cash receipts from subscriptions
1924	40	$525.00
1925	131	2,555.00
1926	177	3,325.00
1927	213	5,790.00
1928	245	6,225.00
1929	271	6,362.00
1930	323	8,112.50
1931	338	8,100.00
1932	324	7,443.75
1933	319	7,514.58
1934	346	8,496.75
1935	359	8,714.56

Subscribers to the Service have received the *Circulars* prepared especially for their use, and a number of other valuable reports. The bimonthly abstract entitled "Education Discussed in Lay Magazines" has been continued as a part of the circular series, and has been reprinted by the National Education Association for distribution to schools maintaining 100 percent membership in the Association. Other circulars are entitled "Teachers'

Salaries in Suburban School Systems, 1934-35," "State School Legislation, 1934," "Recent Trends in Public Educational Expenditures and other Governmental Expenditures," "Organization and Content, Teachers' Salary Schedules," and "Questionnaire Studies Completed—Bibliography No. 6, 1934-35."

Progress being made toward a return to former levels in teachers' salaries was summarized in a special report for subscribers early in 1935, entitled "Upward Trends in Teachers' Salaries." Similar information was presented later in the school year in a series of news bulletins entitled "Teachers' Salary Cuts and Restorations."

Subscribers have received helpful reference material on state school legislation, prepared by the Research Division under the direction of the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association, including "The 1935 Legislative Programs of State Education Associations," "State School Legislation—Bibliography," "School Legislation Affecting Young Children," and "School Finance Systems" which is a series describing the sources and distribution of school funds by separate states. Mimeographed bibliographies on "Publicity," "Adult Education," and "Youth" were sent to subscribers.

Several reports of other agencies were also sent to subscribers. Included in this group were the *Proceedings* of the National Association of Public School Business Officials; federal Office of Education pamphlet, "Per Capita Costs in City Schools, 1933-34"; bulletin of the public schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan, "Time Allotment Study for Grades 1A-8A"; and "The Administration of the School Health Program," a publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. Arrangements have been made to send to subscribers the pamphlet entitled "Comparative Tax Rates of 301 Cities, 1935," published by the National Municipal League, which will be a valuable contribution. The *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, the publications of the Department of Superintendence, and of several other departments of the National Education Association were mailed to subscribers as usual.

The Educational Research Service answers questions on practise in other school systems. It frequently lends unpublished reports to subscribers and prepares lists of references to published material. A subscriber can, thru the Educational Research Service, draw upon nationwide experience in the solution of local problems. Publications from the Service are among the most constantly used materials in any local educational library.

A Longer Planned Program—At the Cleveland convention in 1934, it was voted to appoint a committee to study, investigate, and recommend such changes in the name, the objective, the functions, and the structure of the

Department of Superintendence as will enable it to provide more effective and aggressive leadership. This committee was originally under the chairmanship of Willard E. Givens, who resigned when appointed executive secretary of the National Education Association. Superintendent Paul C. Stetson of Indianapolis, Indiana, succeeded Mr. Givens as chairman. The other members of the committee are Superintendent Homer W. Anderson, Omaha, Nebraska; State Commissioner Walter D. Cocking, Nashville, Tennessee; Superintendent C. Ray Gates, Grand Island, Nebraska; Superintendent Burr J. Merriam, Framingham, Massachusetts; Professor Arthur B. Moehlman, University of Michigan; Superintendent Milton C. Potter, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Superintendent J. W. Ramsey, Fort Smith, Arkansas; and Dr. Payson Smith, Boston, Massachusetts. This committee will report at St. Louis.

Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education—The Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education was appointed by the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence in February 1933, to inquire into the difficulties, financial and otherwise, which the schools were encountering, and to take action to end these difficulties. During the dark years of the depression the need for united action and active leadership in defense of the schools was urgent. The appointment of the Joint Commission was the profession's practical answer to this need. The Commission had no machinery and no salaries of its own, but worked thru existing agencies. The brunt of the organization, research, and publicity work fell on the headquarters staffs of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence.

The loyal cooperation of state, regional, and national educational organizations was an important factor in promoting the work of the Commission. The response to numerous demands was cordial and unfailing.

Of the farflung activities of the Commission, only a few major projects may be mentioned here. The following list is typical:

(1) In order to enlist help and advice from many sources an ex-officio national board of consultants was organized. Nearly one thousand officers of state and national organizations directly interested in education served as consultants.

(2) Regional conferences to gather information and to develop plans for meeting the emergency were held with consultants in Kansas City, Chicago, Cincinnati, Atlanta, Detroit, Hartford, Birmingham, Washington, Minneapolis, Cheyenne, Ogden, Portland, Oakland, Los Angeles, and Austin.

(3) A national conference was held in the summer of 1933 to draft the essentials of a program for the financing of public education. The report of this conference has been used by lay and educational groups in many states as a basis for constructive school finance legislation.

(4) A series of twenty-five nationwide radio broadcasts, placed at strategic hours, was organized in 1933 to permit prominent citizens to discuss the questions of fundamental educational policy growing out of the educational crisis. The Commission also participated in many other radio programs.

(5) A directory of national deliberative committees, with brief notes of their purposes and publications, was printed, and the recommendations made by these important national agencies for the improvement of the schools were carefully studied.

(6) A continuous publicity campaign was conducted in general magazines of national circulation, in newspapers, and in educational periodicals. No accurate count of the articles thus prepared was ever made; it certainly ran into the hundreds and perhaps into the thousands.

(7) In December 1934, a conference on state school legislation and long-time educational planning was called at Washington. Forty-one states, Alaska, and the District of Columbia were represented by one or more of their chief school officers.

(8) Among the publications sponsored by the Joint Commission itself were the following: "Evaluating the Public Schools," published with the cooperation of Phi Delta Kappa; "Education in the Drought States"; "Helping Citizens To Know Their Schools"; "A Directory of National Deliberative Committees in Education"; "Report of National Conference on the Financing of Education"; "Essentials of Taxation"; "The Schools and the Depression: A State by State Review"; "Major Trends in Public Education"; and "Schools and Taxes."

At the Denver convention of the National Education Association in July 1935, the Joint Commission made its final report in which it recommended the organization of an Educational Policies Commission to develop a constructive program for the continuous self-appraisal of the American system of education and to suggest means whereby changes for the improvement of our educational institutions may be more speedily accomplished.

At a time of sore distress, the Joint Commission furnished a national rallying point for the friends of education. The members of the Commission gave unstintingly of time and effort. They are entitled to the gratitude of all those who are interested in the welfare of children.

Respectfully submitted,

S. D. SHANKLAND,
Executive Secretary.

THE CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS
THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

CONSTITUTION

Article I—Name

The name of this association shall be the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Article II—Object

The object of this department shall be to promote the general educational welfare in the field of administrative education and supervision, to make constructive studies, to further the effort and increase the efficiency of persons engaged in education, to foster professional zeal, to advance educational aims and standards, to protect and advance the interests of school administration, and to establish and maintain helpful, friendly relationships.

Article III—Membership

SECTION 1. Membership in the Department of Superintendence shall consist of active, associate, life, and honorary.

SECTION 2. All persons shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association, and who are engaged in supervisory and administrative positions—namely, state, county, and city superintendents, and associate, assistant, and deputy state, county, and city superintendents, and supervisory and administrative officers in city and county school systems exercising the functions of associate, assistant, or deputy superintendents; all state and national officers of educational administration; the heads of teacher-training institutions, colleges, and universities having departments or colleges of education, the heads of these departments or colleges of education, and professors of school administration or supervision in these institutions.

SECTION 3. All members of the National Education Association who are actively engaged in any phase of school work may become associate members of this department by paying the regular membership fee, and shall be entitled to all the privileges of this department except the right to vote and hold office.

SECTION 4. All members of the National Education Association who have been engaged in supervisory or administrative positions as defined in Section 2 of this article, and who have retired from such service, may have the privilege of honorary membership in this department upon recommendation of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 5. All members of the National Education Association who are eligible to active membership in the Department of Superintendence shall become life members of the department upon the payment of a membership fee of $100, which may be made in ten equal annual payments, or upon securing a contribution of $250 to the Permanent Educational Research Fund, which may be paid in five equal annual installments. All such contributions and life membership fees shall become a part of the Permanent Educational Research Fund. Life members shall be exempt from the payment of all other membership fees in the Department of Superintendence, and shall have all the rights and privileges of active members.

SECTION 6. The Executive Committee shall have power to pass upon the credentials of all applicants for membership.

Article IV—Officers

SECTION 1. The officers of this department shall be a president, a first vice-president (who shall be the retiring president), a second vice-president, an executive secretary, and four members of the Executive Committee who, with the other officers of this department, with the exception of the executive secretary, shall constitute the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2. The president and vice-presidents shall hold office for the period of one year from the date of election, including one full year's service in the promotion and operation of one meeting of the department.

SECTION 3. The executive secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee for an indefinite period.

SECTION 4. Members of the Executive Committee shall hold office for four years, one member retiring each year. At the first election the member receiving the largest number of votes shall serve for a term of four years and the others for three, two, and one years, respectively, according to the number of votes received.

Article V—Election of Officers

SECTION 1. The procedure for the election of officers shall be as follows: Nominations shall be made from the floor on the morning of the second day's session at a time previously agreed upon by the Executive Committee, and announced in the printed program of the meeting.

SECTION 2. *Method of balloting*—The tickets issued by the secretary of the department to the members shall be provided with a detachable stub, to be used as a ballot.

Two places for the balloting shall be provided, one at the secretary's headquarters, the other at the entrance to the auditorium in which the general sessions are held.

The ballot-boxes shall be open for voting from 11 A. M. until 6 P. M. on the third day of the meeting.

Those candidates receiving the highest number of votes for the respective offices shall be considered the choice of the department, and declared elected.

The entire procedure of balloting shall be in charge of the Executive Committee and secretary.

SECTION 3. *Announcement of the results of balloting*—At the last regular business meeting, the president shall call for the report of the secretary, announcing the result of the ballot cast for the several officers of the department. In case of a tie vote, the Executive Committee shall cast lots to determine the successful candidate.

Article VI—Appointive Committees

The appointive committees of this department shall consist of a Resolutions Committee, an Audit Committee, and such other committees as may be authorized by the department from time to time.

Article VII—Annual Meeting

The annual meeting of this department shall be held on the fourth Monday in February, and the three succeeding days.

Article VIII—Amendments

This Constitution may be altered or amended at any annual meeting by two-thirds vote of the active members present, the proposed amendment having been submitted in writing at a previous regular business meeting.

BYLAWS

Article I—Duties of Officers

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the president to preside at all meetings and in conjunction with the Executive Committee to prepare programs for the annual meeting of the department; to appoint all committees not otherwise provided for. He shall be chairman and a member of the Executive Committee, and shall call meetings of this committee whenever he deems it necessary, or whenever he is requested so to do by a majority of the members of the committee. He shall perform all other duties appertaining to his office.

SECTION 2. In the absence of the president, the vice-presidents shall preside in turn. In case of vacancy in the office of president, the second vice-president shall at once succeed to the office of president.

SECTION 3. The executive secretary shall keep a complete and accurate record of the proceedings of all meetings of the department and all meetings of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the department, as provided by the Constitution and Bylaws, and in all matters not definitely prescribed therein be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the president. He shall receive all moneys due the department

and transmit them monthly to the secretary of the National Education Association; shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Executive Committee or by the president in the interval between meetings of the Executive Committee. He shall have his records present at all meetings of the department and Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members of the department and shall revise said list annually. He shall be secretary of the Executive Committee and custodian of all property of the department. He shall give such bond as may be required by the Executive Committee. He shall submit an annual report to the Executive Committee at each annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office he shall turn over to his successor in office all money, books, and property of the department. He shall serve during the pleasure of the Executive Committee.

Article II—Duties of Committees

SECTION 1. The Executive Committee shall assist the president in arranging the annual program, and in arranging for the place of the annual meeting. It shall select an executive secretary and fix his salary. The Executive Committee shall submit an annual report at one of the business sessions of the department, shall recommend to the department the appointment of special committees for investigation and research. It shall recommend the amount of money to be expended in such investigations, but in no case shall it incur debt. It shall decide what sections and departments of the National Education Association may be affiliated with this department.

SECTION 2. The Resolutions and Audit Committees shall be appointed by the newly elected president immediately upon his election and shall make their report at the next annual meeting succeeding their appointment.

Article III—Dues

The dues of this department shall be $5 per year for both active and associate members, and shall be paid annually to the executive secretary. In lieu of said annual dues, a six-year membership shall be issued by the executive secretary to any active or associate member upon payment of $25 in advance.

Article IV—Vacancies

All vacancies occurring in any office other than that of president shall be filled by the Executive Committee.

Article V—Rules of Order

Robert's Rules of Order shall govern in all business meetings of this department.

Article VI—Amendments

These Bylaws may be amended at any regular business meeting of this department by a majority vote of the members present, the amendment having been submitted in writing at a previous regular business meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS

The Department of Superintendence

of the

National Education Association of the United States

Corrected to January 1, 1936

A

Abbett, Merle J., A.B.'07, Franklin Col.; A.M.'18, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Admin. Bldg., Ft. Wayne, Ind., since 1932.

Abbot, Julia Wade, B.S.'23, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir., Kdgn. Educ., Admin. Bldg., The Parkway at 21st, Philadelphia, Pa., since 1924.

Abbott, Allan, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y.

Abbott, U. S., Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Princeton, Ind.

Abell, J. A., A.B.'10, A.M.'14, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 353 N. Main St., Nappanee, Ind., since 1923.

Abernethy, Robert R., Diploma '15, Keystone State Normal Sch., Kutztown, Pa.; B.S.'23, Muhlenberg Col.; M.A.'25, Univ. of Pa.; Supt. of Sch., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1935.

Ackerman, O. W., Ph.B.'07, Lafayette Col.; Supt. of Sch., Bangor, Pa., since 1926.

Ackerman, William A., State Dept. of Educ., State House, Trenton, N. J.

Ackert, Mrs. Edith S., A.B.'10, Epworth Univ.; Life Diploma '10, Okla. City Univ.; Life Diploma '18, Univ. of Oregon; Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Roseburg, Oregon, since 1925.

Ackley, Clarence E., A.B.'10, A.M.'13, Oberlin Col.; Ph.D.'33, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Deputy State Supt. of Pub. Instr., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1935.

Ackley, E. L., A.B. and A.M.'05, Pd.B.'08, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Johnstown, N. Y., since 1910.

Adams, Edgar Ray, B.S. in Ed. '22, Northwest Mo. State Tchrs. Col., Maryville, Mo.; A.M.'29, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., Chillicothe, Mo., since 1931.

Adams, Edwin W., M.A.'23, Univ. of Pa.; Ed.D.'28, Temple Univ.; Assoc. Supt. of Sch., Philadelphia, Pa., since 1930.

Adams, Emerson L., A.B.'89, A.M.'92, Bowdoin Col.; Chief, Div. of Rehabilitation and Educ. of Persons Crippled and Disabled and Adult Educ., State House, Providence, R. I., since 1935.

Adams, Karl Langdon, Diploma in C.E.'08, B.S.'09, Ohio Univ.; M.A.'29, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Pres., Northern Ill. State Tchrs. Col., DeKalb, Ill., since 1929.

Adams, Mrs. L. Sherman, Member, Sch. Bd., Wellesley, Mass., since 1935.

Adams, Ray H., A.B.'27, M.A.'28, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Dearborn, Mich., since 1916.

Adams, Waldo Loren, A.B.'22, Manchester Col.; A.M.'30, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Sturgis, Mich., since 1933.

Ade, Lester K., A.B.'21, M.A.'24, Bucknell Univ.; Ph.D.'31, New York Univ.; M.A.'32, Yale Univ.; State Supt. of Pub. Instr., Educ. Bldg., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1935.

Aery, William Anthony, A.B.'04, Columbia Col.; A.M.'05, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir., Summer Sch. since 1932 and Dir. of Educ., Hampton Inst., Hampton, Va., since 1935.

Aken, Otto F., Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Chicago, Ill., since 1933.

Akerly, Harold E., B.S.'08, Univ. of Rochester; S.B.'10, Mass. Inst. of Tech.; M.A.'33, Univ. of Rochester; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 13 Fitzhugh St., S., Rochester, N. Y., since 1929.

Albright, Denton M., A.B.'15, Albright Col.; A.M.'22, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Lewistown, Pa., since 1934.

Alexander, Carter, B.S.'05, A.B.'06, A.M.'08, Univ. of Mo.; Ph.D.'10, Columbia Univ.; Library Prof., Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y.

Alexander, James W., A.B.'02, Princeton Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Twp. Sch., Trenton, N. J., since 1916.

Alfaro, Mrs. Concepcion P., Diploma '22, Univ. of Porto Rico; Supt. of Sch., Rio Grande, P. R., since 1934.

Alfriend, Kyle Terry, A.B.'95, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; A.M.'25, Mercer Univ.; Secy., Ga. Educ. Assn., 934 Vineville Ave., Macon, Ga., since 1923.

Alger, John Lincoln, A.B.'90, A.M.'95, Brown Univ.; Ed.D.'21, R. I. State Col.; Pres., R. I. Col. of Educ., Providence, R. I., since 1908.

Allan, Harold A., A.B.'06, Bates Col.; Dir., Business Div., Natl. Educ. Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C., since 1923.

Allbaugh, Edgar B., Diploma '01, State Tchrs. Col., Emporia, Kansas; Supt. of Sch., Concordia, Kansas, since 1929.

Allen, Charles Forrest, Pd.B.'10, State Tchrs. Col., Warrensburg, Mo.; Ph.B.'17, Univ. of Chicago; M.A.'24, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvr. of Sec. Educ., Pub. Sch., Eighth and Louisiana Sts., Little Rock, Ark., since 1926.

Allen, Frank E., A.B.'16, A.M.'23, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., South Bend, Ind., since 1931.

Allen, Howard A., B.A.'16, Morningside Col.; Prin., W. H. Adamson H. S., Dallas, Texas, since 1935.

Allen, I. M., A.B.'96, Lawrence Col.; Ph.D.'26, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Highland Park, Mich., since 1926.

Allen, James E., A.B.'98, LL.D.'23, Hampden-Sidney Col.; Pres., Marshall Col., Huntington, W. Va., since 1935.

Allen, Lyman Richards, B.S.'98, Harvard Univ.; A.M.'20, Columbia Univ.; Union Supt. of Sch., Framingham, Mass., since 1929.

Allen, Richard D., A.B.'10, A.M.'12, Ph.D.'21, Brown Univ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 20 Summer St., Providence, R. I., since 1918.

Allen, W. S., A.B.'12, Baylor Univ.; A.M.'15, Ph.D.'23, Columbia Univ.; Pres., John B. Stetson Univ., Deland, Fla., since 1934.

Allman, H. B., B.S.'10, Tri-State Col.; Asst. Prof. of Educ., Sch. of Educ., Ind. Univ., Bloomington, Ind., since 1930.

Allman, John I., B.S. in Ed.'29, Mercer Univ.; M.A.'31, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; State Supvr. of Sch. Admin., State Capitol, Atlanta, Ga., since 1930.

Aloysia, Mother M., Ph.D.'26, Fordham Univ.; Pres., Good Counsel Col., White Plains, N. Y., since 1923.

Alstetter, M. L., A.B.'09, M.A.'27, Ohio State Univ.; Ph.D.'29, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs. Address: George Peabody Col. for Tchrs., Nashville, Tenn.

Alverson, G. Carl, A.B.'06, D.Ped.'29, St. Lawrence Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Syracuse, N. Y., since 1927.

Alverson, S. E., B.S.'17, Univ. of Ga.; A.M.'27, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Pub. Sch., Anniston, Ala.

Alves, H. F., B.A.'27, Southwest Texas State Tchrs. Col., San Marcos, Texas; M.A.'28, Univ. of Texas; Dir., Div. of Research and Accounting, State Dept. of Educ., Austin, Texas, since 1930.

Amen, Clarence E., Supt. of Sch., Boomer, Mo.

Ames, Vernon S., A.B.'04, Colby Col.; Supt. of Sch., Wilton, N. H., since 1923.

Andersen, Erik A., Ed.M.'33, Boston Univ.; Ed.D.'34, R. I. Col. of Educ.; Deputy Supt. of Sch., 20 Sumner St., Providence, R. I., since 1930.

Anderson, Charles D., B.S.'17, Mich. State Col.; M.A.'35, Columbia Univ.; Asst. State Commr. of Educ., State House, Trenton, N. J., since 1934.

Anderson, Earl William, A.B.'18, Univ. of Ill.; A.M.'25, Ph.D.'26, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Bureau of Educ. Research, Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio.

Anderson, Ellen M., Co. Supt. of Sch., Moorhead, Minn., since 1930.

Anderson, Ernest B., B.A.'09, Gustavus Adolphus Col.; M.A.'32, Univ. of Minn.; Supt. of Sch., Cloquet, Minn., since 1923.

Anderson, Homer W., B.A.'10, Highland Park Col.; M.A.'15, Ph.D.'25, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Omaha, Nebr., since 1933.

Anderson, Huton N., Supt. of Sch., 216 Phillip St., Conroe, Texas.

Anderson, J. E., B.A. in Ed.'11, Univ. of Minn.; Supt. of Sch., Mankato, Minn., since 1931.

Anderson, J. L., A.B.'21, Mich. State Normal Col., Ypsilanti, Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Trenton, Mich., since 1914.

Anderson, Robert R., Diploma '08, State Normal Sch., Millersville, Pa.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Brackenridge, Pa., since 1918.

Anderson, Ward, B.A.'23, La. State Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Lake Charles, La., since 1920.

Andrew, William W., Ph.B.'03, Brown Univ.; A.M.'04, Columbia Univ.; Ed.M.'21, Harvard Univ. Address: Rock Tavern, N. Y.

Andrews, Edwin C., A.B.'89, Williams Col.; Supt. of Sch., Greenwich, Conn., since 1910.

Andrews, J. O., B.A.'23, Texas Christian Univ.; Deputy Supt. of Sch., 409 E. Weatherford, Ft. Worth, Texas.

Andrews, Roy M., A.B.'20, Southwestern Univ.; A.M.'26, Stanford Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Del Rio, Texas, since 1929.

Andrews, T. Wingate, A.B.'08, Univ. of N. C.; Supt. of Sch., High Point, N. C., since 1924.

Anibal, Earle W., Ph.B.'08, Hamilton Col.; A.M.'23, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Mountain Lakes, N. J., since 1932.

Ankenbrand, William W., A.B.'20, Marietta Col.; A.M.'24, Ohio State Univ.; Ph.D.'32, New York Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Rockford, Ill., since 1935.

Antrim, G. Harold, A.B.'25, Washington and Jefferson Col.; M.A.'29, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Point Pleasant Beach, N. J., since 1930.

App, Isaac D., B.S.'05, M.S.'10, Susquehanna Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1922.

Appel, Frank, A.B.'94, Ohio Wesleyan; Supt. of Sch., 840 Eighth St., Portsmouth, Ohio, since 1908.

Appenzellar, J. L., A.B.'08, Lebanon Valley Col.; A.M.'16, Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Wyomissing, Pa., since 1923.

Apprill, Arthur, B.S. in Ed.'26, Southeast Mo. State Tchrs. Col., Cape Girardeau, Mo.; A.M.'35, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., Hermann, Mo., since 1934.

Archer, Charles H., A.B.'25, Concord State Tchrs. Col., Athens, W. Va.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Princeton, W. Va., since 1935.

Archer, Frederick, Supt. of Sch., Louisville, Ky., since 1931.

Armstrong, Dallas W., Ph.B.'94, A.M.'05, LL.D.'26, Grove City Col.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Lock Haven, Pa., since 1925.

Armstrong, J. Harding, A.B.'07, A.M.'08, Harvard Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 14 Church St., Westboro, Mass., since 1924.

Armstrong, Ray, A.B.'18, M.A.'26, Univ. of N. C.; Supt. of Sch., Goldsboro, N. C., since 1927.

Arnold, Arthur D., A.B.'93, A.M.'96, Dartmouth Col.; Supt. of Sch., 140 Ascension St., Passaic, N. J., since 1932.

Arnold, Dorothy Livingston, Dir., Dept. of Tchr. Tr., N. Y. Sch. of Fine and Applied Art, 2239 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

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Davis, J. Thomas, A.B.'18, Univ. of Texas; B.S.'20, Agrl. and Mech. Col. of Texas; M.A.'21, Univ. of Texas; LL.D.'26, Howard Payne Col.; Dean, John Tarleton Agrl. Col., Stephenville, Texas, since 1919.

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Edmonson, James Bartlett, A.B.'06, M.A.'10, Univ. of Mich.; Ph.D.'25, Univ. of Chicago; Dean, Sch. of Educ., Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor, Mich., since 1929.

Edwards, Elizabeth A., Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Maywood, N. J., since 1923.

Edwards, Harry E., B.A.'19, Washington Col.; M.A.'26, Northwestern Univ.; Ph.D.'33, Ind. Univ.; Dir., Dept. of Educ., Emmanuel Missionary Col., Berrien Springs, Mich., since 1922.

Edwards, Mrs. Muriel, Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Santa Barbara, Calif., since 1930.

Edwards, Newton, A.B.'10, Univ. of S. C.; A.M.'13, Columbia Univ.; Ph.D.'23, Univ. of Chicago; Prof. of Educ., Dept. of Educ., Univ. of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., since 1921.

Eelkema, H. H., B.A.'16, Upper Iowa Univ.; M.A.'29, Ph.D.'33, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt., Proviso Twp. H. S., Maywood, Ill., since 1933.

Egan, Mrs. Anna H., Prin., Franklin Sch., Kansas City, Mo., since 1916.

Egan, Nora L., Diploma '90, Detroit Normal Sch.; Dist. Prin., Goodale Sch., Detroit, Mich., since 1919.

Egan, Thomas A., M.A.'11, St. Louis Univ.; Dean, Loyola Univ., 28 N. Franklin St., Chicago, Ill., since 1931.

Eichelberger, James W., Jr., A.B.'04, Livingstone Col.; A.M.'23, Northwestern Univ.; Secy. of Christian Educ., African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, 460 E. 40th St., Chicago, Ill., since 1932.

Eichler, George A., A.B.'14, Muhlenberg Col.; M.A.'28, Ed.D.'34, Pa. State Col.; Supt. of Sch., Northampton, Pa., since 1930.

Eikenberry, D. H., A.B.'11, A.M.'15, Ind. Univ.; Ph.D.'26, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio, since 1933.

Eikenberry, V. L., A.B.'14, Franklin Col., Franklin, Ind.; A.M.'15, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Vincennes, Ind., since 1929.

Eisenhart, W. W., B.S.'17, M.A.'21, Univ. of Pa.; Supt. of Sch., Tyrone, Pa., since 1921.

Ekstrom, Claus Emanuel, A.B.'16, A.M.'17, Brown Univ.; Assoc. Prof. of Educ., Brown Univ., since 1919; Head, Dept. of Educ. and Dir. of Univ. Extension, Brown Univ., Providence, R. I., since 1927.

Elcan, E. G., A.B.'08, Hampden-Sidney Col.; Supt. of Sch., Bainbridge, Ga., since 1920.

Eldred, Arvie, A.B.'05, A.M.'21, Williams Col.; Pd.D.'25, N. Y. State Col. for Tchrs.; Exec. Secy., N. Y. State Tchrs. Assn., 152 Washington Ave., Albany, N. Y., since 1930.

Eldredge, A. C., B.S.'95, Mt. Union Col.; Prin., James F. Rhodes H. S., Cleveland, Ohio, since 1933.

Eldridge, H. D., B.S.'22, M.A.'29, Colo. State Col. of Educ., Greeley, Colo.; Supt. of Sch., H. S., Greeley, Colo., since 1934.

Elliff, Miles A., B.S.'25, Kansas State Tchrs. Col., Pittsburg, Kansas; M.A.'27, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., Lebanon, Mo., since 1932.

Ellingson, Mark, A.B.'26, Gooding Col.; M.A.'30, Univ. of Rochester; Chmn., Curriculum Com., Mechanics Inst., Rochester, N. Y., since 1928.

Elliott, A. W., A.B.'05, Ohio Wesleyan Univ.; A.M.'27, Univ. of Chicago; Ph.D.'31, Ohio State Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 704 N. Gay St., Mt. Vernon, Ohio, since 1921.

Elliott, Charles H., Ph.D.'14, Columbia Univ.; State Commr. of Educ., State House, Trenton, N. J., since 1927.

Elliott, E. A., A.B.'17, M.A.'28, Univ. of Kansas; Supt. of Sch., Joplin, Mo., since 1930.

Elliott, Eugene B., B.S.'24, M.A.'26, Mich. State Col.; Ph.D.'33, Univ. of Mich.; State Supt. of Pub. Instr., State Capitol, Lansing, Mich., since 1935.

Elliott, John B., B.S.'30, Knoxville Col.; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., Memorial Bldg., Beckley, W. Va., since 1932.

Elliott, Lucy C., 911 Locust St., St. Louis, Mo.

Elliott, Robert I., B.S.'01, Normal Col., Wayne, Nebr.; A.B.'14, Univ. of Nebr.; M.A.'28, Columbia Univ.; Pres. Nebr. State Normal Col., Chadron, Nebr., since 1915.

Ellis, Eugene Webster, B.S.'14, Univ. of Vt.; M.S.'27, Rutgers Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Garden St., Farmington, Conn., since 1929.

Ellis, Henry G., A.B.'10, Randolph-Macon Col.; Supt. of Sch., Petersburg, Va., since 1923.

Ellis, Homer C., B.S.'23, Mt. Union Col.; Supt. of Sch., Norwalk, Ohio, since 1933.

Elmendorf, George M., Ph.B.'05, A.M.'29, Union Col.; Supt. of Sch., Plattsburgh, N. Y., since 1920.

Elrod, Lacy H., State Supvr. of Certification, War Memorial Bldg., Nashville, Tenn.

Elsbree, Willard S., Ph.D.'28, Columbia Univ.; Assoc. Prof. of Educ., Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y., since 1926.

Enderis, Dorothy C., 1914 W. Kilbourn Ave., Milwaukee, Wis.

Endsley, Andrew D., Ph.B.'98, Col. of Wooster; Supt. of Sch., Tarentum, Pa., since 1905.

Engelhardt, Fred, Ph.B.'08, Yale Univ.; M.A.'15, Ph.D.'24, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ. Admin., Col. of Educ., Univ. of Minn., Minneapolis, Minn., since 1924.

Engelhardt, J. L., A.B.'22, Southwestern Col., Winfield, Kansas; A.M.'23, Univ. of Kansas; Supt. of Sch., Central Sch., Kingman, Kansas, since 1926.

Engelhardt, N. L., A.B.'03, Yale Univ.; Ph.D.'18, Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., since 1921; Assoc. Dir., Div. of Field Studies, Inst. of Educ. Research, since 1929 and Head, Dept. of Advanced Prof. Educ., Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y., since 1935.

Engleman, James O., Diploma '01, State Normal Sch., Terre Haute, Ind.; A.B.'05, Ind. Univ.; A.M.'18, Univ. of Chicago; LL.D.'23, James Millikin Univ.; Ph.D.'32, Ohio State Univ.; Pres., Kent State Univ., Kent, Ohio, since 1928.

English, Mildred E., B.S.'21, M.A.'26, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., Raleigh, N. C., since 1924.

English, O. H., B.S.'29, A.M.'32, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Supvg. Prin. of Twp. Sch., 1409 Pacific Ave., Brackenridge, Pa., since 1933.

English, William J., A.B.'13, Dartmouth, Col.; Supt. of Sch., Town Hall, Lebanon, N. H., since 1925.

Enyeart, Buel F., B.A.'23, Northeast Mo. State Tchrs. Col., Kirksville, Mo.; M.A.'27, Univ. of Southern Calif.; Supt. of Sch., 320 W. San Fernando Blvd., Burbank, Calif., since 1934.

Erdly, Calvin V., B.S.'20, Susquehanna Univ.; M.S.'33, Pa. State Col.; Supt. of Sch., Hanover, Pa., since 1933.

Erickson, Arthur E., A.B.'16, Gustavus Adolphus Col.; A.M.'29, Univ. of Minn.; Supt. of Sch., Ironwood, Mich., since 1932.

Ernst, Lillie R., Ph.B.'92, A.M.'07, Wash. Univ.; Prin., Blewett H. S., St. Louis, Mo., since 1934.

Erwin, Clyde A., State Supt. of Pub. Instr., Raleigh, N. C., since 1934.

Erwine, Russell H., B.L.'07, Ohio Wesleyan Univ.; M.A.'22, Wittenberg Col.; Supt. of Sch., Wells Bldg., Steubenville, Ohio, since 1932.

Espy, Herbert G., Univ. of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.

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Estenson, Emil, B.A.'11, Luther Col., Decorah, Iowa; M.A.'27, Univ. of N. Dak.; Supt. of Sch., Buhl, Minn., since 1928.

Estill, Harry F., Litt.D.'07, Austin Col.; Pres., Sam Houston State Tchrs. Col., Huntsville, Texas, since 1908.

Eva, Sister, M.A.'16, Columbia Univ.; Prin., St. Joseph's Academy, St. Paul, Minn., since 1925.

Evans, Albert W., S.B.'05, S.M.'08, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., Tilden Tech. H. S., 4747 S. Union Ave., Chicago, Ill., since 1926.

Evans, C. E., B.A.'88, Oxford Col.; M.A.'06, Univ. of Texas; LL.D.'23, Southwestern Univ.; Pres., Southwest Texas State Tchrs. Col., San Marcos, Texas, since 1911.

Evans, Evan E., A.B.'20, Baker Univ.; A.M.'28, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Winfield, Kansas, since 1931.

Evans, Howard R., A.B.'25, Ind. State Tchrs. Col., Terre Haute, Ind.; M.A.'28, Columbia Univ.; Ph.D.'30, Northwestern Univ.; Dean, Tchrs. Col., Univ. of Akron, Akron, Ohio, since 1933.

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Evans, Vernon Wynne, A.B.'17, Boston Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Saugus, Mass., since 1933.

Evelyn, Sister Mary, A.B.'16, St. Clara Col.; Ph.D.'28, Univ. of Fribourg, Suisse; Dean, Rosary Col., Forest Ave. and Division St., River Forest, Ill., since 1928.

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Eversull, Frank L., Ph.B.'22, A.M.'27, Univ. of Chicago; Ph.D.'34, Yale Univ.; Pres., Huron Col., Huron, S. Dak., since 1934.

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Ewing, Parmer L., B.S. in Ed.'30, Univ. of Ill.; Supt. of Sch., Highland, Ill., since 1931.

Ewing, William F., A.B.'06, Stanford Univ.; M.A.'19, Univ. of Calif.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., Oakland, Calif., since 1927.

Eye, Glen G., B.A.'25, Kansas Wesleyan Univ.; Ph.M.'30, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., Washington Sch., Miles City, Mont., since 1929.

Eyman, R. Merle, B.Eng.'20, M.A.'29, Ohio State Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Lancaster, Ohio, since 1928.

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Fairchild, R. W., A.B.'14, M.A.'19, Univ. of Mich.; Ph.D.'32, Northwestern Univ.; Pres., Ill. State Normal Univ., Normal, Ill., since 1933.

Fairchild, W. W., A.B.'13, Syracuse Univ.; M.A.'30, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Longfellow Sch., Rutland, Vt., since 1921.

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Falk, Philip H., B.A.'21, M.A.'28, Ph.D.'35, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., Lake Mills, Wis., since 1929.

Fallon, John J., M.A.'24, Catholic Univ. of America; Diocesan Supt. of Sch., 63rd and W. Main Sts., Belleville, Ill., since 1925.

Fallon, Minnie E., Ph.B.'15, Univ. of Chicago; A.M.'29, DePaul Univ.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., 5555 Sheridan Rd., Chicago, Ill., since 1931.

Fannon, E. W., Supt. of Sch., Centerville, Iowa.

Farley, Belmont Mercer, Ph.D.'29, Columbia Univ.; Asst. Dir., Div. of Publications, Natl. Educ. Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C., since 1929.

Farley, Eugene S., B.S.'21, Pa. State Col.; A.M.'25, Ph.D.'34, Univ. of Pa.; Dir. of Research, Bd. of Educ., Newark, N. J., since 1929.

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Fassett, Josephine, Supt. of Twp. Sch., Toledo, Ohio.

Fast, L. Wade, A.B.'20, A.M.'24, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Mt. Clemens, Mich., since 1919.

Faulkner, Elizabeth, A. B.'85, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., Faulkner Sch. for Girls, 4746 Dorchester Ave., Chicago, Ill., since 1909.

Fausey, John R., A.B.'18, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Town Hall, West Springfield, Mass., since 1923.

Fausold, Samuel, A.B.'10, Gettysburg Col.; M.A.'25, Ph.D.'34, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Supt. of Sch., Sr. H. S., Monessen, Pa., since 1930.

Favrot, Leo Mortimer, B.S.'94, Tulane Univ.; A.M.'23, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; Genl. Field Agt., Genl. Educ. Bd., La. Natl. Bank Bldg., Baton Rouge, La., since 1924.

Fearing, H. W., B.A.'23, Iowa State Tchrs. Col., Cedar Falls, Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Valley Junction, Iowa, since 1933.

Feaser, George W., A.B.'28, Elizabethtown Col.; A.M.'34, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 215 E. High St., Middletown, Pa., since 1934.

Feik, L. W., B.A.'10, Northwestern Col.; M.A.'26, Univ. of Wis.; LL.D.'34, Morningside Col.; Supt. of Sch., Sioux City, Iowa, since 1931.

Feik, Roy William, A.M.'19, Univ. of Ill.; Supt. of Sch., Sch. Admin. Bldg., East Chicago, Ind., since 1934.

Fell, E. E., A.B.'02, Alma Col.; A.M.'17, Columbia Univ.; LL.D.'35, Hope Col.; Supt. of Sch., Holland, Mich., since 1910.

Fellows, Ernest W., A.B.'94, Grinnell Col.; A.M.'11, State Univ. of Iowa; A.M.'17, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 7 Beacon St., Gloucester, Mass., since 1921.

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Ferguson, Arthur W., B.S.'12, Univ. of Pa.; A.M.'20, Lafayette Col.; Ph.D.'24, Univ. of Pa.; Supt. of Sch., York, Pa., since 1930.

Ferguson, Chauncey C., A.B.'92, A.M.'95, Bates Col.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., Millbury, Mass., since 1912.

Ferguson, Harold A., A.B.'14, A.M.'16, Clark Univ.; Prin., Montclair Sr. H. S., Montclair, N. J., since 1926.

Ferguson, Lamar, A.B.'25, Univ. of Ga.; A.M.'30, Columbia Univ.; A.M.'30, Oglethorpe Univ.; Supt. of Sch., H. S., Decatur, Ga., since 1925.

Ferriss, Emery N., Ph.B.'04, Western Col.; M.A.'06, Ph.D.'08, State Univ. of Iowa; Prof. of Rural Educ., Stone Hall, Cornell Univ., Ithaca, N. Y., since 1920.

Fessenden, Zina, Co. Supt. of Sch., Cresco, Iowa, since 1926.

Fetherston, Roy, B.A.'23, Beloit Col.; M.A.'32, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Monmouth, Ill., since 1930.

Fetterly, Clarence A., A.B.'97, A.M.'00, Hamilton Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Rutherford, N. J., since 1911.

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Files, Ralph E., A.B.'95, Bates Col.; Prin., East Orange H. S., East Orange, N. J., since 1912.

Fillers, Herbert D., S.B.'16, Univ. of Chicago; M.A.'28, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 1105 Holliday, Wichita Falls, Texas, since 1931.

Finck, Edgar M., Litt.B.'10, M.A.'12, Princeton Univ.; Ph.D.'30, New York Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Toms River, N. J., since 1919.

Findley, Mrs. Essa, Co. Supt. of Sch., Hartville, Mo., since 1935.

Finley, David R., A.B.'13, Union Col.; A.M.'30, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Hudson Falls, N. Y., since 1925.

Fish, Olive C., B.A.'17, Western Reserve Univ.; M.A.'23, Ph.D.'27, Univ. of Wis.; Prin., Demonstration Sch., State Normal Sch., Cortland, N. Y., since 1929.

Fisher, C. Edward, A.B.'98, St. Lawrence Univ.; A.M.'12, Brown Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Braintree, Mass., since 1921.

Fisher, E. C., B.S.'26, Bradley Polytechnic Inst.; Supt. of Sch., 300 N. Monroe St., Peoria, Ill., since 1923.

Fisher, J. M., A.B.'13, Ursinus Col.; A.M.'19, Univ. of Pa.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Ambler, Pa., since 1913.

Fisher, Oscar A., B.S. in Ped.'24, New York Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Consol. Sch., Raritan, N. J.

Fisher, R. B., A.B.'24, Northwestern State Tchrs. Col., Alva, Okla.; M.A.'33, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Pampa, Texas, since 1929.

Fisk, Frank E., Ph.B.'01, Syracuse Univ.; A.M.'26, Univ. of Rochester; Supt. of Sch., Canandaigua, N. Y., since 1919.

Fisk, H. Clay, Prin., John Burroughs Sch., 1924 N. Cincinnati, Tulsa, Okla.

Fitzgerald, James A., B.A.'15, M.A.'24, Univ. of S. Dak.; Ph.D.'31, State Univ. of Iowa; Asst. Dean, Loyola Univ., 28 N. Franklin St., Chicago, Ill., since 1931.

Fitzgerald, William Stewart, A.B.'13, St. John's Col., Annapolis, Md.; M.A.'29, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Princess Anne, Md., since 1929.

Fitzpatrick, Jerome M., B.S.'14, Univ. of Vt.; Supt. of Sch., H. S., Westbury, Long Island, N. Y., since 1925.

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Fleming, Oliver A., B.A.'13, Simmons Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Freeport, Texas, since 1920.

Fleming, Samuel Edgar, A.B.'07, Wabash Col.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 810 Dexter Ave., Seattle, Wash., since 1922.

Flinner, Ira A., A.B.'11, A.M.'19, Ed.M.'25, Ed.D.'26, Harvard Univ.; LL.D.'27, Grove City Col.; Educ. Dir., Lake Placid Club Educ. Foundation and Dir., Northwood Sch., Lake Placid Club, N. Y., since 1925.

Flom, L. O., A.B.'20, St. Olaf Col.; Supt. of Sch., Aledo, Ill., since 1932.

Flora, A. Cline, A.B.'12, Doleville Col.; A.M.'17, Univ. of S. C.; Supt. of Sch., Columbia, S. C., since 1928.

Flower, Frank R., Diploma '10, Williamson Free Sch. of Mech. Trades; Dir. of Voc. Educ., Pub. Sch., Atlantic City, N. J., since 1933.

Flowers, William R., B.S.'21, M.A.'24, Johns Hopkins Univ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 3 E. 25th St., Baltimore, Md., since 1924.

Flurry, Bruce, A.B.'17, M.A.'27, Univ. of Ala.; Supt. of Sch., Dothan, Ala., since 1935.

Foley, James F., A.B.'21, Holy Cross Col.; M.A.'34, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Woodbine, N. J., since 1927.

Fontaine, E. Clarke, A.B.'01, M.A.'11, St. Johns Col.; M.A.'25, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Litt.D.'31, Washington Col.; State Supvr. of H. S., 114 Front St., Chestertown, Md., since 1921.

Foote, John M., M.A.'23, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; State Div. of Reference and Service, State Dept. of Educ., State Capitol, Baton Rouge, La., since 1914.

Forbes, Anna S., B.A.'31, State Tchrs. Col., San Francisco, Calif.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Downieville, Calif., since 1934.

Force, Anna Laura, M.A.'21, Colo. State Tchrs. Col., Greeley, Colo.; Prin., Lake Jr. H. S., W. 18th Ave. and Lowell Blvd., Denver, Colo., since 1926.

Ford, Gerais W., A.B.'26, La. State Normal Col., Natchitoches, La.; M.A.'31, La. State Univ.; Prin., H. S., Lake Charles, La., since 1927.

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Foster, C. R., B.A.'11, M.A.'14, LL.D.'26, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Indiana, Pa., since 1927.

Foster, Henry L., B.S.'26, Southwest Texas State Tchrs. Col., San Marcos, Texas; Supt. of Sch., Longview, Texas, since 1922.

Foster, Isaac Owen. B.S.'21, M.S.'22, Ph.D.'25, Univ. of Ill.; Assoc. Prof. of Educ., Sch. of Educ., Ind. Univ., Bloomington, Ind., since 1926.

Foster, Talmadge D., B.S.'24, M.A.'27, Col. of William and Mary; Co. Supt. of Sch., Waverly, Va., since 1925.

Foster, William Drummond, Co. Supt. of Sch., Buckhannon, W. Va.

Foust, John L., Ph.B. in Ed.'17, Univ. of Chicago; M.A.'27, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Owensboro, Ky., since 1921.

Fowler, Burton P., A.B.'07, Syracuse Univ.; A.M.'25, Columbia Univ.; Headmaster, Tower Hill Sch., Wilmington, Del., since 1923.

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Fowlkes, John Guy, A.B.'16, Ouachita Col.; A.M.'21, Ph.D.'22, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Univ. of Wis., Madison, Wis., since 1927.

Fox, George, B.S.'23, St. Johns Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Annapolis, Md., since 1916.

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Franklin, Raymond A., Supt. of Sch., Kerrville, Texas.

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Ramsey, James William, A.B.'13, Ouachita Col.; M.A.'21, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; Supt. of Sch., Fort Smith, Ark., since 1923.

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Ranger, Walter E., A.B.'79, A.M.'83, Bates Col.; A.M.'02, Univ. of Vt.; LL.D.'07, Bates Col.; Ed.D.'22, R. I. State Col.; State Commr. of Educ., State House. Providence, R. I., 1905-1935. Address: 39 Oriole Ave., Providence, R. I.

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Rawdon, Howard L., A.B.'04, A.M.'14, Oberlin Col.; Supt. of Sch., Oberlin, Ohio, since 1908.

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Ray, Mrs. Willie C., A.B.'13, M.A.'30, Transylvania Col.; Supt. of Sch., Shelbyville, Ky., since 1930.

Read, Florence M., A.B.'09, Litt.D.'29, Mount Holyoke Col.; Pres., Spelman Col., Atlanta, Ga., since 1927.

Reagan, Chester L., B.S.'12, M.A.'22, Earlham Col.; Ed.M.'30; Prin., Moorestown Friends' Sch., Moorestown, N. J., since 1925.

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Salley, Nathaniel Moss, A.B.'97, Wofford Col.; Dean, Sch. of Educ., and Head, Dept. of Educ., Fla. State Col. for Women, Tallahassee, Fla., since 1910.

Salser, Alden, A.B.'16, Southwestern Col.; A.M.'24, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., Central Intermediate School, 516 N. Estelle, Wichita, Kansas, since 1929.

Sampson, William C., Ph.B.'02, Sc.D.'33, Dickinson Col.; Supt. of Sch., Upper Darby, Pa., since 1926.

Samuelson, Agnes, M.A.'28, State Univ. of Iowa; Litt.D.'35, Augustana Col., Rock Island, Ill.; Pres., Natl. Educ. Assn., 1935-36; State Supt. of Pub. Instr., State House, Des Moines, Iowa, since 1927.

Sanberg, George H., B.A.'19, Univ. of N. Dak.; Supt. of Sch., Rochester, Minn., since 1925.

Sanborn, Channing T., A.B.'00, Dartmouth Col.; Supt. of Sch., Tilton, N. H., since 1915.

Sanders, Fred W., B.S. in Ed.'23, Univ. of Minn.; Supt. of Sch., Akeley, Minn., since 1930.

Sanders, Joel L., Diploma '21, State Normal Sch., Troy, Ala.; Co. Supt. of Educ., Troy, Ala., since 1923.

Sanders, Walter F., A.B.'09, A.M.'17, Univ. of Chicago; Dean, Park Col., Parkville, Mo.

Sandlin, R. N., B.A.'23, Univ. of Texas; Deputy State Supt. of Educ. and Dir. of Health and Physical Educ., Cooper, Texas, since 1930.

Sandwick, Richard L., Supt., Deerfield-Shields Twp. H. S., Highland Park, Ill.

Sanford, Robert George, A.B.'05, Yale Univ.; M.A.'25, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Somerville, N. J., since 1927.

Saunders, Joseph H., A.B.'17, Col. of William and Mary; A.M.'24, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Newport News, Va., since 1921.

Saundle, J. S., A.B.'29; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., Bluefield, W. Va., since 1934.

Sauvain, Walter Howard, Prin., Daniel Butler Sch., 20 Winslow Rd., Belmont, Mass.

Savides, Antonios P., A.B.'00, Robert Col., Constantinople; A.M.'11, Ph.D.'17, Harvard Univ.; Prof. of Psych. and Educ., Russell Sage Col., Troy, N. Y., since 1927.

Savitz, Jerohn J., B.S.'97, Pd.M.'99, Pd.D.'02, New York Univ.; Prin., Glassboro State Normal Sch., Glassboro, N. J., since 1923.

Savoy, A. Kiger, A.B. in Ed.'29, Howard Univ.; A.M.'34, Columbia Univ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., Franklin Admin. Bldg., Washington, D. C., since 1930.

Saxon, J. H., Supt. of Sch., Quitman, Ga.

Saxvik, H. O., B.A.'05, Luther Col.; Supt. of Sch., 622 Eighth St., Bismarck, N. Dak., since 1922.

Scarborough, William Acree, A.B.'19, Randolph-Macon Col.; M.A.'21, Univ. of Pa.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Dinwiddie, Va., since 1923.

Schafer, J. J., A.B.'20, M.A.'24, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., 1521 W. Carpenter St., Midland, Mich., since 1919.

Schafer, Russell E., B.S.'22, Ohio Northern Univ.; M.A.'32, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Barnesville, Ohio, since 1931.

Schantz, C. W. W., B.A.'12, Franklin and Marshall Col.; M.A.'20, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Smyrna, Del., since 1919.

Schiebel, Walter J. E., B.S. in M.E.'16, M.A.'32, Univ. of Rochester; Prin., Dallas Tech. H. S., Dallas, Texas, since 1932.

Schlagle, F. L., B.S.'16, State Tchrs. Col., Emporia, Kansas; M.A.'23, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Library Bldg., Kansas City, Kansas, since 1932.

Schlegel, Albert G. W., A.B.'20, Moravian Col.; A.M.'27, Pa. State Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Red Lion, Pa., since 1927.

Schlockow, Oswald, Ph.D.'05, New York Univ.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 141 E. 21st St., Brooklyn, N. Y., since 1927.

Schlosser, Ralph W., A.B.'11, Ursinus Col.; A.M.'22, Columbia Univ.; Litt.D.'32, Ursinus Col.; Pres., Elizabethtown Col., 346 Orange St., Elizabethtown, Pa., since 1927.

Schmidt, A. W., A.B.'19, Cornell Col., Mt. Vernon, Iowa; M.A.'26, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Asst. in Educ. Finance, State Educ. Dept., Albany, N. Y., since 1928.

Schmidt, Frederick K., B.S.A.'21, Purdue Univ.; M.A.'27, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Eldora, Iowa, since 1933.

Schmidt, H. W., A.B.'08, Univ. of Minn.; Supvr. of H. S. and Bldg., State Dept. of Pub. Instr., 2117 Rowley Ave., Madison, Wis., since 1919.

Schneider, S. P., Prin., Shandon Elem. Sch., Columbia, S. C.

Schneider, William S., B.Ped.'99, N. Y. State Normal Col., Albany, N. Y.; B.A.'12, Adelphi Col.; M.A.'16, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., City Hall, Cohoes, N. Y., since 1931.

Schniepp, Albert E., B.A.'24, Central Wesleyan Col.; M.A.'30, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., Carlyle, Ill., since 1932.

Schoch, Parke, A.B.'88, A.M.'91, Lafayette Col.; Assoc. Supt. of Sch., The Parkway at 21st, Philadelphia, Pa., since 1930.

Schreiber, Paul D., B.S.'12, Bucknell Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Port Washington, N. Y., since 1920.

Schroeder, Elroy H., B.S. in Ed.'26, Univ. of N. Dak.; Supt. of Sch., Grand Forks, N. Dak., since 1933.

Schroedermeier, Alvin G., B.A.'18, North Central Col.; M.A.'35, Univ. of Kansas; Supt. of Sch., Dodge City, Kansas, since 1935.

Schuknecht, Lester Charles, B.S.'17, Univ. of Rochester; A.M.'31, Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., 136 Main St., South Glens Falls, N. Y., since 1926.

Schultz, Frederick, Ph.B.'22, Univ. of Chicago; A.M.'24, Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin., 346 N. Park Ave., Buffalo, N. Y., since 1929.

Schultz, Leo C., B.S.'23, Southeast Mo. State Tchrs. Col., Cape Girardeau, Mo.; A.M.'30, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Cairo, Ill., since 1933.

Schultz, Louis J., M.A.'31, State Univ. of Iowa; Supt. of Sch., Central H. S., Cape Girardeau, Mo., since 1935.

Schumpert, Bailey T., A.B.'02, Peabody Col.; Supt. of Sch., West Point, Miss., since 1918.

Schupp, Oscar G., B.S. in Ed.'26, Southwest Mo. State Tchrs. Col., Springfield, Mo.; A.M.'31, Univ. of Mo.; Supt. of Sch., Alton, Mo., since 1933.

Schwebel, George A., LL.B.'17, LL.M.'20, Chicago-Kent Col. of Law; Supt. of Elem. Sch., 2324 S. 49th Ave., Cicero, Ill., since 1926.

Schwegler, Raymond A., A.B.'99, Brown Univ.; M.A.'06, Ottawa Univ.; Ph.D.'29, Columbia Univ.; Dean, Sch. of Educ. and Dir., Summer Session, Univ. of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, since 1927.

Schweickhard, Philip, B.S. in Ed.'17, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., Amherst Central H. S., Snyder, N. Y., since 1930.

Scofield, Belle C., Diploma '13, Pratt Inst.; B.Ph.'21, Univ. of Chicago; Asst. Supvr. of Art, Pub. Schools, 1644 N. Talbott Ave., Indianapolis, Ind., since 1921.

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Scott, Clifford John, A.B.'05, Allegheny Col.; Pd.D.'20, Univ. of Del.; Supt. of Sch., East Orange, N. J., since 1921.

Scott, Frank A., A.B.'03, Harvard; A.M.'13, Dartmouth; Ed.M.'23, Harvard; Supt. of Sch., 72 Marlboro St., Belmont, Mass., since 1921.

Scott, Ira Oscar, B.S.'15, Kansas State Tchrs. Col., Emporia, Kansas; A.M.'24, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch. and Dean, Jr. Col., Garden City, Kansas, since 1927.

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Sealy, Glenn A., B.S.'32, M.A. in Ed.'34, St. Lawrence Univ.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., New Bremen, N. Y., since 1920.

Sears, Jesse Brundage, A.B.'09, Stanford Univ.; Ph.D.'20, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Stanford Univ., Stanford University, Calif., since 1911.

Seay, Maurice F., A.B.'24, A.M.'26, Transylvania Col.; Prof. of Educ. and Head, Dept. of Educ., Dean and Registrar, Union Col., Barbourville, Ky.; Chief, Tr. Section, Tenn. Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tenn.

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Selecman, Charles C., D.D.'16, Central Col., Fayette, Mo.; D.D.'16, Univ. of Southern Calif.; D.D.'16, Ky. Wesleyan Col.; LL.D.'23, Centenary Col.; LL.D.'24, Austin Col.; LL.D.'33, Baylor Univ.; Pres., Southern Methodist Univ., Dallas, Texas, since 1923.

Selke, George A., B.A.'16, Univ. of Minn.; M.A.'26, Columbia Univ.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., St. Cloud, Minn., since 1927.

Sellers, J. M., A.B.'22, Ind. State Tchrs. Col., Terre Haute, Ind.; A.M.'26, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 66 W. Third St., Hobart, Ind., since 1935.

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Seman, Philip L., Ph.D.'32, Liberal Church of America; Pres., Peoples Jr. Col., 3500 Douglas Blvd., Chicago, Ill., since 1913.

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Severn, William E., B.S.'22, Allegheny Col.; M.A.'35, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Corning, N. Y., since 1929.

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Sexson, John A., B.A.'12, Colo. State Tchrs. Col., Greeley, Colo.; M.A.'19, Univ. of Denver; D.Ed.'34, Colo. State Tchrs. Col., Greeley, Colo.; Supt. of Sch., 320 E. Walnut St., Pasadena, Calif., since 1928.

Sexton, Jay Wesley, A.B.'02, Albion Col.; M.A.'12, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Lansing, Mich., since 1916.

Shackelford, Edward M., A.B.'85, A.M.'88, LL.D.'13, Univ. of Ala.; Pres., State Tchrs. Col., Troy, Ala., since 1899.

Shafer, B. F., M.A.'23, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Freeport, Ill., since 1929.

Shafer, Elwood W., A.B.'03, Syracuse Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Riverhead, N. Y., since 1922.

Shaffer, Roy Lee, Ph.B.'09, Dickinson Col.; A.M.'17, Columbia Univ.; Ph.D.'33, New York Univ.; Prin., State Normal Sch., Jersey City, N. J., since 1933.

Shamback, John Elmer, B.A.'14, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., 601 Thompson Ave., Donora, Pa.

Shambaugh, J. B., B.S.'19, Franklin and Marshall Col.; Supvg. Prin. of Twp. Sch., Succasunna, N. J., since 1928.

Shangle, C. Paine, B.A.'10, Univ. of Oregon; M.A.'11, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., Herald Bldg., Bellingham, Wash., since 1933.

Shank, Theodore, A.B.'05, A.M.'07, Roanoke Col.; A.M.'26, Columbia Univ.; Asst. Dir., Jr. Red Cross, 1709 Washington Ave., St. Louis, Mo., since 1927.

Shankland, Sherwood D., A.B.'94, Western Reserve Univ.; A.M.'18, Columbia Univ.; Exec. Secy., Dept. of Superintendence, Natl. Educ. Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C., since 1922.

Shanley, Dorothy M. M., Secy., Conn. Tchrs. Retirement Bd., State Office Bldg., Hartford, Conn., since 1925.

Shanley, Minnie V., B.S.'30, Fordham Univ.; LL.D.'32, Col. of St. Elizabeth; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 2 Harrison Ave., Jersey City, N. J., since 1923.

Sharman, Jackson Roger, B.S.'17, Univ. of Miss.; M.A.'24, Ph.D.'30, Columbia Univ.; Assoc. Prof. of Physical Educ., Sch. of Educ., Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor, Mich., since 1930.

Sharon, Robert E., B.A.'29, Univ. of Ky.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Independence, Ky.

Sharpe, Donald M., A.B.'30, Monmouth Col.; M.A.'35, Univ. of Chicago; Prin., Oneida Communtiy H. S., Oneida, Ill., since 1935.

Sharpe, E. Alma, M.A.'31, Univ. of Mich.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Howell, Mich., since 1920.

Sharrard, Kate, B.S.'14, M.A.'22, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvr. of Elem. Instr., Pub. Sch., Grand Island, Nebr., since 1928.

Shaver, Charles N., B.S.'23, Southwest Texas State Tchrs. Col., San Marcos, Texas; Supt. of Sch., Huntsville, Texas, since 1923.

Shaw, Edwin Adams, B.S.'98, Tufts Col.; A.M.'16, Ph.D.'18, Harvard Univ.; Head, Dept. of Educ., Tufts Col., Tufts College, 57, Mass., since 1927.

Shaw, Edwin O., A.B.'02, Ph.B.'12, Grayson Col.; LL.B.'21, Univ. of Chicago; M.S. in Ed.'27, Univ. of Okla.; Supt. of Sch., Sapulpa, Okla.

Shaw, John, A.B.'14, Transylvania Col.; A.M.'25, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Maysville, Ky., since 1929.

Shaw, Lloyd, A.B.'13, LL.D.'28, Colo. Col.; Supt., Cheyenne Mountain Sch., Colorado Springs, Colo., since 1916.

Shea, James T., B.A.'15, M.A.'24, Univ. of Detroit; Dir. of Curriculum and Research, Bd. of Educ., San Antonio, Texas, since 1922.

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Sheffer, William E., A.B.'12, Allegheny Col.; A.M.'28, Ph.D.'34, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Manhattan, Kansas, since 1926.

Shelburne, L. F., M.A.'14, Univ. of Va.; Supt. of Sch., Staunton, Va., since 1925.

Shelters, Ronald R., A.B. in Ed. and A.M.'27, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Watervliet, Mich., since 1927.

Shelton, Frank M., B.S.'99, Mt. Union Col.; M.A.'11, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 2117 Elmwood Ave., Springfield, Ohio, since 1924.

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Shepard, Edwin LeRoy, A.B.'10, Hillsdale Col.; M.A.'28, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Supvg. Prin. of Twp. Sch., Bridgeville, Pa., since 1924.

Shepherd, Grace M., A.B., Hastings Col.; M.A.'20, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Northwest Mo. State Tchrs. Col., Maryville, Mo., since 1921.

Shepherd, Homer Paul, B.S.'05, Baker Univ.; M.A.'31, Univ. of Tenn.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Lyndhurst, N. J., since 1932.

Sherk, J. E., A.B.'13, Lebanon Valley Col.; A.M.'21, Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Oberlin, Pa., since 1918.

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Sherrod, Charles C., Ph.D.'24, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; Pres., East Tenn. State Tchrs. Col., Johnson City, Tenn., since 1925.

Shields, Richard A., Supt. of Sch., Lewes, Del.

Shilling, John, Ph.B.'08, A.M.'10, Dickinson Col.; A.M.'25, Columbia Univ.; D.Sc. in Ed.'33, Dickinson Col.; Asst. State Supt. in charge of Secondary Sch., State Dept. of Pub. Instr., Dover, Del., since 1919.

Shilling, Robert Edward, Supt. of Sch., Milford, Del.

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Shinn, Anna Lois, 923 N. Forest Ave., River Forest, Ill.

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Shores, Roscoe V., A.B.'10, Central Col.; A.M.'25, Univ. of Wis.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., Library Bldg., Kansas City, Mo., since 1930.

Short, Anna A., Diploma '91, Hunter Col.; Asst. Supt. of Sch., Pub. Sch. 6, Manhattan, 39 E. 85th St., New York, N. Y., since 1925.

Shotwell, Fred C., Ph.B.'16, Lafayette Col.; A.M.'21, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Franklin, N. J., since 1923.

Shouse, John L., A.B.'95, A.M.'96, William Jewell Col.; A.M.'28, Univ. of Chicago; Asst. Supt. in charge of High Schools, Pub. Library Bldg., Kansas City, Mo., since 1929.

Shows, S. M., A.B.'26, La. State Normal Col., Natchitoches, La.; Parish Supt. of Sch., Mansfield, La., since 1926.

Shrode, Carl, Prin., Central H. S., Evansville, Ind.

Shryock, Clara M., B.A.'31, M.Ed.'35, Pa. State Col.; Asst. Co. Supt. of Sch., Wilmore, Pa., since 1924.

Shuck, Albert C., A.B.'11, A.M.'12, Dickinson Col.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Salem, N. J., since 1931.

Shue, J. Milton, A.B.'06, Univ. of Richmond; Div. Supt. of Sch., Henrico Court House, Richmond, Va., since 1930.

Shulkey, Bruce C., B.A.'16, Baylor Univ.; M.A.'31, Texas Technological Col.; Asst. Supt. of Elem. Sch., Fort Worth, Texas, since 1935.

Shultz, Birl E., A.B.'09, De Pauw Univ.; A.M.'11, Ph.D.'16, Columbia Univ.; Dean, New York Stock Exchange Inst., New York, N. Y.

Shumate, Wade H., A.B.'14, Univ. of Okla.; M.A.'23, Univ. of Chicago. Address: Southeastern State Tchrs. Col., Durant, Okla.

Sias, Azariah Boody, Ph.B.'03, M.A.'22, Univ. of Rochester; Ph.D.'26, Stanford Univ.; Prof. of Sch. Admin. and Dir. of Tchr. Tr., Ohio Univ., Athens, Ohio, since 1931.

Sickles, Frederick James, A.B.'08, Syracuse Univ.; A.M.'18, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., New Brunswick, N. J., since 1923.

Siders, Walter R., B.S.'91, Fremont Col.; D.Paed.'27, Univ. of Idaho. Address: 73 Grove St., Montclair, N. J.

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Sifert, E. R., A.B.'13, Des Moines Univ.; M.A.'26, State Univ. of Iowa; Prin., Central H. S., Oklahoma City, Okla., since 1930.

Silver, Ernest L., B.L.'99, Pd.D.'24, Dartmouth Col.; Pres., State Normal Sch., Plymouth, N. H., since 1911.

Silvernale, John L., Ph.B.'00, Hamline Univ.; Ed.M.'22, Mich. State Normal Col.; Supt. of Sch., 408 Michigan Ave., Menominee, Mich., since 1914.

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Simley, Irvin T., A.B.'11, Luther Col.; M.A.'27, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., South St. Paul, Minn., since 1926.

Simmons, Ernest Pitkin, A.B.'13, Creighton Univ.; M.A.'25, State Univ. of Iowa; Co. Supt. of Sch., Elliott, Iowa, since 1919.

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Simpson, I. Jewell, A.B.'99, Western Md. Col.; A.M.'24, Columbia Univ.; Asst. State Supt. of Sch., Baltimore, Md., since 1925.

Simpson, Mabel E., B.S.'23, Univ. of Rochester; M.A.'25, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir. of Elem. Educ., Bd. of Educ., 13 Fitzhugh St., S., Rochester, N. Y., since 1919.

Sims, Delbert Edward, B.S. in Ed.'25, Univ. of Ill.; Co. Supt. of Sch., Court House, Greenville, Ill., since 1931.

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Sinclair, Theodore R., B.S.'20, Va. Polytech. Inst.; Div. Supt. of Sch., Warm Springs, Va., since 1928.

Singleton, Gordon G., B.S.'19, Univ. of Ga.; M.A.'24, Ph.D.'25, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dean of Educ. and Dir., Summer Sch., Mercer Univ., Macon, Ga., since 1934.

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Smith, Elmer Francis, B.S.'09, R. I. State Col.; M.A.'21, New York Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Roselle Park, N. J., since 1919.

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Smith, George Owen, B.S.'01, Valparaiso Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Princeton, Ill., since 1923.

Smith, Guy D., A.B.'98, Kalamazoo Col.; A.B.'00, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of City Sch. and of Educ. at State Prison, Stillwater, Minn., since 1924.

Smith, H. L., B.S.'25, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; M.A.'30, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Paducah, Ky., since 1933.

Smith, Harold W., A.B.'16, East Texas State Normal Sch., Commerce, Texas; M.A.'30, Univ. of Calif.; Supt. of Grammar Sch., Glendale, Ariz., since 1925.

Smith, Harry Pearse, A.B.'09, A.M.'15, State Univ. of Iowa; Ph.D.'25, Columbia Univ.; Prof. of Educ., Syracuse Univ., since 1927 and Dir. of Research, Pub. Sch., Syracuse, N. Y., since 1928.

Smith, Harvey A., A.B.'14, Franklin and Marshall Col.; A.M.'21, Univ. of Pa.; Ph.D.'30, Columbia Univ.; Prin., Central H. S., Washington, D. C., since 1929.

Smith, Henry E., Ph.B.'20, Ph.M.'28, Univ. of Wis.; Supt. of Sch., 2227 N. Sixth St., Sheboygan, Wis., since 1934.

Smith, Henry Lester, A.B.'98, A.M.'99, Ind. Univ.; A.M.'10, Ph.D.'16, Columbia Univ.; Pres., Natl. Educ. Assn., 1934-35; Dean. Sch. of Educ., Ind. Univ., since 1916 and Dir., Bureau of Cooperative Research, Ind. Univ., Bloomington, Ind., since 1921.

Smith, Hubert H., A.B.'15, Wabash Col.; M.A.'26, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Hammonton, N. J., since 1927.

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Smith, James M., A.B.'21, McMaster Univ.; A.M.'22, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Lockport, Ill., since 1925.

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Smith, Mrs. Margaret Mendenhall, Prin., Ebert Sch., Denver, Colo., since 1929.

Smith, Montgomery C., A.B.'00, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Hudson, N. Y., since 1922.

Smith, Nelson C., B.L.'01, Boston Univ.; M.L.'10, Univ. of Calif.; Supvg. Prin. of Sch., Leonia, N. J., since 1921.

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Smith, Raymond A., A.B.'00, A.M.'04, Butler Col.; B.D.'05, Yale Univ.; Dir., Sch. of Educ., Texas Christian Univ., Ft. Worth, Texas, since 1920.

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Spencer, Robert R., A.B.'23, Univ. of Hawaii; M.A.'33, Stanford Univ.; Prin., Roosevelt H. S., Honolulu, Hawaii, since 1934.

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